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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT OF
COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

BY



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The undersigned certify that they have read,
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ABSTRACT

This dissertation is a historical survey of the major stages in the development of comparative studies in education. Comparative education is a fairly new addition to the foundational fields of education. It began in ancient times with the simple descriptions of foreign education embodied in travellers' reports. The next stage in its development occurred when the desire to reform education led educators to study foreign educational systems in order to borrow useful ideas regarding school organization and administration. The rise of internationalism in education was another recognizable stage in the development of comparative education. The international education activities of several organizations produced a wealth of material that has been of use to comparative education. Also some comparative educators adopted an international viewpoint in their examination of educational matters.

The breakthrough in the development of comparative education came with the first attempts to introduce the element of interpretation into the study of educational systems. Hitherto foreign educational systems had been generally studied without relating them to the social context in which they operated. Now, however, this was considered to be essential. The interpretation of educational systems at this stage was based on the general idea that

certain antecedent factors in national life determined the present shape of educational systems. During its most recent stage of development, however, attempts have been made to analyze the social factors themselves, using the perspectives and methods of the social sciences.

The development of comparative education has been fostered by comparative education societies and by some international organizations, notably United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization. Also teaching and research in universities have contributed to its crystallization as a field of study.

The future development of comparative education will depend largely on the extent to which certain problems are solved. These problems include: (a) the disagreement among scholars as to what comparative education is, (b) the superficiality in some comparative education studies, (c) the element of bias in studying the educational system of one's own country and (d) the absence of any real comparison in most of the studies done so far. A few suggestions for improvement in these areas are given in the conclusion to the study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Comparative education is a fairly new addition to the foundational fields of education in universities and colleges. Between 1879 and 1895 it was introduced into some American universities including the University of the State of Missouri, the University of the State of New York, the University of California (Berkeley), the University of Washington and the University of Michigan.¹ European universities and colleges began introducing comparative education into their programs of study during the opening decades of the twentieth century. However the origins of comparative education may be traced further back to the publication of Jullien's Plan² in 1817 and even beyond to an earlier period.

The purpose of this study is to attempt to trace the beginnings and growth of comparative education as an area of study. In this historical study the writer has examined the changing conceptual framework which characterized the various approaches to comparative education at different periods of

¹P.D. Travers, "Interest in European Education and the Development of Comparative Education as a Subject of Study in American Universities and Colleges in the Nineteenth Century." Ed. D. Dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1967, pp. 227-231.

²See Stewart Fraser (ed.), Jullien's Plan for Comparative Education 1816-1817, (New York: Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1964).

time. Accordingly, an attempt has been made to organize the historical material around themes rather than following a strictly chronological sequence. The themes consist of recognizable stages of development through which comparative education has passed. These can be summarized as follows:

- (1) The Stage of Travel Reports
- (2) The Stage of "Hunting Expeditions"
- (3) The Stage of Initial Attempts at a Systematic Approach
- (4) The Stage of International Concern
- (5) The Stage of Initial Attempts at Interpretation
- (6) The Stage of Social Science Interpretation

The development of comparative education can be accounted for by an examination of these recognizable stages.

As part of this exercise an attempt has also been made to examine the development of institutional supports which have helped to establish comparative education on a firm footing. These supports include (1) the teaching of comparative education in universities and colleges, (2) the organization and activities of comparative education societies and (3) the establishment of international organizations, such as the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Bureau of Education (IBE), and their supporting role in teaching and research in comparative education.

Chapter I outlines the purpose and scope of the study

as well as the method of research adopted. This introductory part also discusses related studies and indicates sources from which data were obtained. The stages of development in comparative education are then examined. It is to be understood that these stages do not necessarily correspond to any strict chronological time sequence. Characteristic writings identified with each of the several stages of development in comparative education may be found even in present-day literature. For instance, the drive toward internationalism in education begun by John Amos Comenius in the seventeenth century was continued into the nineteenth and twentieth centuries and is now evident in the work of UNESCO, IBE and other international agencies. The framework is useful for the purpose of this study. At each stage there was a recognizable motive for the comparative study of education. This motive generally influenced the type of study done and this can be seen in the literature that was subsequently produced. Examples of the literature at each stage are examined.

Chapter II deals with the stage of travel reports. This was the stage when travellers to foreign countries recorded their observations of social institutions in their diaries or journals. A major motive for including descriptions of foreign educational systems in travel reports was to satisfy the curiosity of those who could not travel. Commenting on this first stage of comparative education Fraser and

Brickman have made the following observation:

One may certainly conjecture that comparative education is as old as the custom of visiting countries other than one's own. This practice -- whether for purposes of commerce, religious conversion, war, or even curiosity -- goes back to the early periods of human history. At various times travellers brought back facts, impressions, and ideas regarding the cultures of the peoples they visited.³

Travel reports bearing on foreign education have been examined in this chapter and include accounts of the following: Megasthenes, Chi Fah-Hian and Hiuen-Tsiang on education in India, Ibn Battuta on Islamic education, William Coxe on Russian education and Carl Phillip Moritz on education in England. The selection covers the period from ancient times to the eighteenth century.

The travel reports on foreign education were generally simple descriptive accounts. The role of travel guides which made reference to foreign education is also examined in this chapter. Some of these guides which became common in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries instructed travellers to discipline their foreign observations with respect to educational institutions and practices. One such guide by

³Stewart E. Fraser and W.W. Brickman, A History of International and Comparative Education: Nineteenth Century Documents, (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1968), p. 2.

Leopold Berchtold⁴ contained a number of questions framed to derive information on various aspects of public education.

Chapter III deals with the stage of "hunting expeditions". Particularly in the nineteenth century and to some extent in the twentieth century, the desire for educational reform led educators to tour foreign countries with the aim of studying their educational systems to draw useful lessons from them. The travels of enthusiastic educators in search of new educational ideas and practices have been aptly described by Thut and Adams as "hunting expeditions".⁵ European countries, particularly Prussia and France, were regarded as excellent models to be emulated. Selected European educators whose works are examined in this chapter include Victor Cousin and Matthew Arnold. Of the North American educators the works of the following are examined: John Griscom, Alexander Bache, Horace Mann, Henry Barnard and Egerton Ryerson. All these scholars made "hunting expeditions" with the primary objective of educational borrowing. Similar borrowing activities by educators in Japan are investigated. The general characteristics of the literature produced at this stage are examined; in general, the writings were descriptive and eulogistic but

⁴ Leopold Berchtold, Essay to Direct and Extend the Inquiries of Patriotic Travellers, London, 1789. Also E.S. Bates, Touring in 1600: A Study in the Development of Travel as a Means of Education, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1912).

⁵ I.N. Thut and Don Adams, Educational Patterns in Contemporary Societies, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964), p. 4.

unsystematic.

Chapter IV deals with the stage of initial attempts at a systematic approach to the comparative study of education. This began in the nineteenth century. Some of the nineteenth century comparative educators, although influenced by the borrowing motive, recognized the necessity of approaching the comparative study of educational systems with some sort of framework or basic principle. Jullien's work well illustrates the trend at this stage. His Plan for comparative education contained 146 questions aimed at collecting data in a very systematic manner. The questions were classified under the following headings: primary, secondary, higher, normal (teacher training), education of girls and educational legislation. They were designed to provide data for the preparation of analytical charts which could be related as well as compared, thus enabling one "to deduct from them certain principles, determined rules, so that education might become almost nearly a positive science...."⁶ The proposed comparative tables were to cover the principal educational institutions in Europe and were to show, according to Jullien, those which were progressing or retrogressing. This, he hoped, would make it easy for the progressive educational systems to be emulated. The work of Jullien, sometimes referred to as the founding father of

⁶ Stewart Fraser (ed.), op. cit., p. 20.

comparative education, is fully examined in this chapter. So also is the work of Auguste Basset, Alexander Bache and James Kay-Shuttleworth. Their approach included the use of quantification, comparative tables and heads of inquiry.

Chapter V deals with the stage of international concern. This stage became well marked at the end of the nineteenth century and continued into the twentieth century. Whereas in previous times the comparative study of education had been motivated largely by curiosity and the desire to borrow ideas and practices from abroad, the important motivation now was "the hope that it would serve the wider interests of humanity, and not just the narrow purposes of national aggrandizement."⁷ Of course, it is to be understood that altruism alone did not underlie international motivation; political and ideological considerations were also implied.

The idea of international education goes far back to Jullien and even further back to John Amos Comenius in the seventeenth century. However, it was only toward the end of the nineteenth century and during the first half of the twentieth century that the idea was actively pursued and translated into action through the formation of international organizations and publications on educational matters aimed

⁷ Harold J. Noah and Max A. Eckstein, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, (London & Toronto: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 34.

at promoting international harmony and understanding.

International education is not necessarily comparative education. However some of the work in international education has been useful to comparative educators. The Encyclopedia Americana defines international education as follows:

The term 'international education' is sometimes used to refer to any type of educational relations among nations, including not only formal educational activities, but general cultural relations and informational and propaganda programs. Sometimes 'international education' is taken to mean internationalism in education, which refers to an international point of view or approach to educational subject matter rather than to any specific activities.⁸

The two interpretations of international education are both relevant to this section of the study. Chapter V examines some of the activities in international education; it also examines some of the literature produced as a result of the international motivation and indicates its relevance to comparative education. This includes (1) publications of international organizations (e.g. UNESCO and IBE), (2) publications on cultural relations and international exchange programs and (3) the work of scholars (such as Isaac Kandel) which has an international point of view. Some of the consequences of this international motivation for countries in Asia and Africa have been briefly examined in

⁸ The Encyclopedia Americana, Canadian edition, Vol. 15, (Montreal and Toronto: Americana Corporation of Canada Ltd., 1963 edition), p. 249.

this chapter.

Chapter VI deals with the stage of early attempts at interpretation in comparative education. Up to about 1900 the literature in comparative education had been predominantly reportorial. Scholars had generally provided descriptive accounts of foreign educational practices as well as the structural aspects of educational systems without attempting to explain why different systems came to be what they were or functioned as they did. Beginning about 1900, however, they were motivated to examine the total dynamic interaction of education and society. A study by Michael Sadler in 1900 led to this attempt at interpretation in comparative education. Primarily as a result of Sadler's essay, "How Far Can We Learn Anything of Practical Value from the Study of Foreign Systems of Education?" educational systems came to be regarded as the outcomes of social forces and factors operating after long periods of time.⁹ Educational systems were then considered to be integral parts of the societies which had produced them and were therefore to be studied in their cultural contexts. From about 1900, therefore, work in comparative education began to emphasize dynamic analysis and explanation rather than simple description of educational institutions and practices. The literature during this stage generally comprised studies of national character and the social institutions which

⁹ See reprint in Comparative Education Review, Vol. 7, (February, 1964), pp. 307-314.

contributed to its formation. These studies were generally based on history. The work of Michael Sadler is examined in this chapter, as well as that of his successors, namely, Isaac Kandel, Nicholas Hans, Vernon Mallinson, Robert Ulich and Peter Sandiford.

Chapter VII deals with the stage of social science interpretation and represents the most recent stage in the development of comparative education. At this present stage scholars aim at seeking explanation based on the concepts and techniques of the social sciences. Since the end of the Second World War empirical work in the social sciences has greatly increased and this factor has had a beneficial effect on comparative education which now employs some of their methods. The social sciences are contributing to the development of comparative education by helping to make it more meaningful and systematic. In this chapter some of these more recent developments, in terms of the relationship between education and the social sciences, are examined to illustrate the present stage of development in comparative education. A few examples of works in this area are as follows: (I) James Coleman (ed.), Education and Political Development, Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965; (II) Frederick Harbison and C.A. Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth, New York, Toronto, London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964; (III) Gunnar Myrdal, Asian Drama: An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations, Volume III, New York: The Twentieth Century Fund,

1968, pp. 1621-1828 and (IV) Beatrice B. Whiting, Six Cultures: Studies of Child Rearing, New York and London: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1963.

Chapter VIII is a historical survey of certain institutions which have contributed to the development of comparative education and helped establish it on a firm footing. The chapter deals with the introduction of comparative education into some American, European and Canadian universities. The changing programs of instruction in these institutions are also examined. The chapter also deals with the development and activities of comparative education societies in America, Europe, Canada and Japan as well as international institutions like UNESCO and IBE whose publications have contributed to the advancement of comparative education.

In Chapter IX, the conclusion, the writer has summarized the main trends that have taken place in the past. Furthermore he has indicated current concern and some likely future developments in comparative education and also offered a few suggestions for improvement.

The dissertation is concerned with the historical development of comparative education. Although references are sometimes made to methods, the full scale examination of comparative education methodology is outside the scope of this study. Any reference to methods is intended to contribute to an understanding of the development of comparative education at a particular stage. Similarly the aims, values

and academic status of comparative education, though not constituting the primary objective of this study, have been touched upon in appropriate sections to elucidate the development of comparative education. The method of research adopted was historical and bibliographical; the characteristic literature produced during the various developmental stages of comparative education has been examined.

The data for the study were obtained from the following: (a) Primary sources, including reports on foreign educational systems by comparative educators, (b) secondary sources on comparative education, (c) journal articles, (d) unpublished material, (e) encyclopedias and (f) annual reports. The primary sources included the following:

(a) Horace Mann, Seventh Annual Report of the Board of Education of the State of Massachusetts, Boston: Dutton and Wentworth, State Printers, 1844; (b) Calvin E. Stowe, Report on Elementary Public Instruction in Europe, Boston: Dutton and Wentworth, 1838. The secondary sources included the following: I.L. Kandel, Essays in Comparative Education, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930; I.N. Thut and Don Adams, Educational Patterns in Contemporary Societies, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964; Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education: A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1951; Vernon Mallinson, An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education, (second edition), London:

Heineman, 1960; H.J. Noah and Max A. Eckstein, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, London and Toronto: Macmillan Company, 1969.

As regards journal articles the main sources were Comparative Education Review, Comparative Education, International Review of Education, School and Society, The School Review and Harvard Educational Review.

Unpublished material was provided by (a) Paul Travers, "Interest in European Education and the Development of Comparative Education as a Subject of Study in American Universities and Colleges in the Nineteenth Century", Ed. D. Dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1967, and (b) Walter Brewer, "Victor Cousin as a Comparative Educator", Ph. D. Dissertation, Columbia University, New York, 1968.

All four editions of Encyclopedia of Educational Research contain useful articles, namely, (1) R.H. Eckelberry, "Comparative Education", in S. Monroe (ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (1st edition), New York: Macmillan Co., 1941, pp. 345-353; (2) R.H. Eckelberry, "Comparative Education", in W.S. Monroe (ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (2nd edition), New York: Macmillan Co., 1950, pp. 283-290; (3) George F. Kneller, "Comparative Education", in C.W. Harris (ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (3rd edition), New York: Macmillan Co., 1960, pp. 316-323 and (4) W.W. Brickman, "Comparative Education", in Robert L. Ebel, (ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (4th edition),

New York: Macmillan Co., 1969, pp. 184-195. The fourth edition has a fairly extensive bibliography. A short article by Isaac Kandel entitled "Comparative Education" is contained in H.N. Rivlin (ed.), Encyclopedia of Modern Education, New York: The Philosophical Library of New York City, 1943, pp. 174-175.

Also providing useful material were the reports of the comparative education societies in Europe, America and Canada as well as those of (1) the Comparative Education Center at the University of Chicago, (2) Teachers College, Columbia University, New York and (3) University of London Institute of Education.

As regards related studies, useful material on the development of comparative education was provided by Harold J. Noah and Max A. Eckstein, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, London and Toronto: Macmillan Co., 1969. For the development of comparative education in America during the nineteenth century information was obtained from P.D. Travers, "Interest in European Education and the Development of Comparative Education as a Subject of Study in American Universities and Colleges in the Nineteenth Century", Ed. D. Dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1967. Other related studies were as follows: Stewart E. Fraser and W.W. Brickman (eds.), A History of International and Comparative Education: Nineteenth Century Documents, Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1968; W.W. Brickman, "A Historical

Introduction to Comparative Education," Comparative Education Review, February 1960, pp. 6-13; W.W. Brickman, "Prehistory of Comparative Education to the End of the Eighteenth Century," Comparative Education Review, Vol. 10, No. 1, February 1966, pp. 30-47; Andreas M. Kazamias and B.G. Massialas, Tradition and Change in Education: A Comparative Study, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1965 (Chapter I).

The following works in foreign languages may be consulted to advantage: Alexander Vexliard, La Pedagogie Comparee: Methodes et Problemes, Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1967; Hilker Franz, Vergleichende Padagogik: Eine Einfuhrung in Ihre Geschichte, Theorie unt Praxis, Munchen, Heuber, 1962 and Friedrich Schneider, La Pedagogia Comparada: Su Historia, sus principios, y sus metodos, Barcelona: Editorial Herder, 1966.

CHAPTER II

THE STAGE OF TRAVEL REPORTS

Comparative education is stated to have begun in 1817 when Jullien of Paris published his Plan.¹ However, Brickman has indicated that persistent search "is likely to yield earlier origins than those accepted by previous students of the history of comparative education."² In actual fact these earlier origins may be traced back to the beginnings of human history when travellers to foreign countries made observations of various social institutions and later wrote descriptions of them. Commenting on this early stage of comparative education, Fraser and Brickman have made the following observation:

One may certainly conjecture that comparative education is as old as the custom of visiting countries other than one's own. This practice -- whether for purposes of commerce, religious conversion, war, or even curiosity -- goes back to the early periods of human history. At various times, travellers brought back facts, impressions, and ideas regarding the cultures of the peoples they visited.³

¹ A.M. Kazamias and B.G. Massialas, Tradition and Change in Education: A Comparative Study, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965), pp. 1-2.

² W.W. Brickman, "Prehistory of Comparative Education to the End of the Eighteenth Century," Comparative Education Review, Vol. 10, No. 1, (Feb. 1966), p. 30.

³ Stewart Fraser and W.W. Brickman (eds.), A History of International and Comparative Education: Nineteenth Century Documents, (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1968), p. 2.

This early stage was essentially the prehistory of comparative education. The present chapter seeks to show that the writings at this stage reveal a consciousness of cultural comparisons, that people showed an interest in foreign educational systems and that they sometimes made simple comparisons of one system with another.

Whatever the motives for travelling abroad, the essential point is that the visitors generally studied the educational institutions of the countries visited. Generally also they recorded their observations, sometimes in the form of journals. Going abroad brought travellers into contact with different educational institutions and practices which could not fail to attract their attention. It was only natural for travellers to record these to satisfy the curiosity of their countrymen.

One may begin by referring to the old travel reports on some Asiatic countries. In 302 B.C. the Greek historian Megasthenes was sent by Seleucus I Nicator as ambassador to the court of the Indian ruler Chandragupta. He remained there until 291 B.C. and was therefore able to study some of India's cultural institutions. From the available fragments of his Indica⁴ one can have an idea of the extensive intellectual activity among the Indian philosophers of the third century

⁴J.W. McCrindle, tr., Ancient India as Described by Megasthenes and Arrian, (Calcutta: Chuckerverty, Chatterjee & Co., Ltd., 1960).

B.C. Megasthenes distinguished between two groups of Indian philosophers, namely, the Brachmanes and Sarmanes. He wrote with esteem about the Brachmanes who "are the more consistent in their opinions" and "spend their time in listening to serious discourse, and in imparting their knowledge to such as will listen to them."⁵ These philosophers lived an isolated and ascetic life in groves outside the cities and according to Megasthenes, spent thirty-seven years in philosophical study before rejoining the community. Comparing the Brachmanes to the Greek philosophers he observed:

... on many points their opinions coincide with those of the Greek, for like them they say that the world had a beginning, and is liable to destruction, and is in shape spherical and that the Deity who made it, and governs it, is diffused through all its parts⁶

Megasthenes similarly described the ascetic life of the Sarmanes philosophers who, through their messengers, gave advice to Kings "regarding the causes of things."⁷ Both groups of philosophers must have been literate because Megasthenes referred to the practice whereby they sometimes put into writing what they predicted about the coming year.

The spread of Buddhism from India to several Asiatic countries after the third century B.C. was followed by attempts, on the part of some adherents, to visit India to

⁵ Ibid., pp. 98-99.

⁶ Ibid., pp. 100-101.

⁷ Ibid., p. 102.

find the original sources of Buddhist doctrines. Buddhism reached China in 65 A.D., Burma in the fifth century A.D. and Thailand in the seventh century A.D.⁸ Since Buddha himself wrote nothing but transmitted his teaching orally to his disciples, they formed various sects, each professing a different version of Buddhism. Thus arose various Buddhist schools throughout Asia, including Hinayana, Mahayana and Vajrayana.⁹ Under such circumstances it was difficult to know which version represented the truth and it was no wonder that some Buddhist monks travelled long distances to India to obtain the facts.

Thus Chi Fah-Hian, a devout Chinese Buddhist, went on a pilgrimage to India in 400 A.D. to discover the original sources of Buddhist doctrines because the translations of Buddhist books then available in China were generally considered to be erroneous. During his ten years of travel through the Indian subcontinent he visited several Buddhist monasteries which were centres of learning. At Paliputra, a noted centre for the study of Buddhism, he spent three years learning to speak and write Sanskrit and copying out religious precepts. Fah-Hian's account indicates that the body of Buddhist doctrine was not then preserved in print but rather generally through oral tradition. As he stated

⁸ Everyman's Encyclopaedia, Fifth edition, Volume 2, (London: J.M. Dent & Sons Ltd.), p. 546.

⁹ Ibid.

"... the various masters trusted to tradition only for their knowledge of the Precepts, and had no written copies of them at all."¹⁰ It was at Pataliputra that Fah-Hian fortunately came upon a few of the documents which he lost no time in copying. His account indicates that there were no less than eighteen famous Buddhist schools in India at the time.

Much more comprehensive than Fah-Hian's observations was the account of Hiuen-Tsiang on education in India. Hiuen-Tsiang was a Chinese scholar and monk who travelled to India in 629 A.D. to study the science of yoga and other subjects. His sixteen years stay was spent mainly in monasteries at Nalanda and other towns. In Havell's History of Aryan Rule¹¹ there is a detailed account of Hiuen-Tsiang's impressions about Indian education, both elementary and higher. As regards elementary education, which was apparently well organized, children were made to study the alphabet and the Siddhan (a primer) on first entering school. At the age of seven they went on to study the five sciences or sastras which included grammar, arts and crafts, medical science, logic and philosophy. This was a general education made available to the children of all religious sects, whether Buddhist or

¹⁰ Samuel Beal (trans.), Travels of Fah-Hian and Sung-Yun, Buddhist Pilgrims from China, 400 A.D. and 518 A.D. Second edition. (London and Santiago de Compostela (Spain): Susil Gupta, 1964), p. 142.

¹¹ E.B. Havell, The History of Aryan Rule in India, (London: George Harrap & Co. Ltd., 1918), pp. 196-201.

Brahman. Instruction was given orally and teachers were described as being earnest and diligent, inspiring their students to exert themselves and systematically leading them forward.

A detailed account of Nalanda University was given by Hiuen-Tsiang who studied in that institution. Located in the largest and richest of India's monasteries it handled over 10,000 students who received instruction in various fields of study including law, medicine and mathematics. In his work¹² Hiuen-Tsiang referred to the priests who numbered several thousands as being "men of the highest ability and talent."¹³ A general idea of academic life at the university is indicated by the following passage:

From morning till night they engage in discussion; the old and the young mutually help one another. Those who cannot discuss questions out of the Tripitaka are little esteemed, and are obliged to hide themselves for shame. Learned men from different cities ... come here in multitudes to settle their doubts, and then the streams (of their wisdom) spread far and wide.... One must have studied deeply both old and new (books) before getting admission.¹⁴

Hiuen-Tsiang also gave a long list of some of the university's distinguished professors whose "treatises and commentaries ...

¹² See translation in Samuel Beal (trans.), Si-Yu-Ki: Buddhist Records of the Western World, Vol. 2. (translated from the Chinese of Hiuen-Tsiang, A.D. 629). Popular edition. (London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co. Ltd., 1968).

¹³ Ibid., p. 170.

¹⁴ Ibid., pp. 170-171.

were widely diffused, and which for their perspicuity are passed down to the present time."¹⁵

Turning now to observations on Islamic education in the fourteenth century one may cite the report of Ibn Battuta who has been described as "the greatest Arabian traveller of the Middle Ages."¹⁶ Battuta's overland journeys took him to several countries of Europe, Asia and Africa. The basis of Islamic education was the Qur'an and Battuta made references to this in his travels to centres of Islamic learning. While on a pilgrimage to Mecca between 1325 and 1354 A.D. he came to Damascus where he spent some time studying and participating in religious worship. The magnificent Umayyad mosque in this city greatly fascinated him and he made a detailed description of it showing its dual function as an educational institution and a place of worship. He wrote as follows:

There are in this mosque several 'circles' of instruction in the various branches of the sacred knowledge, while the traditionists read the books of Tradition ... and the Quranic readers recite in pleasing voices morning and evening.¹⁷

Battuta did not elaborate on the "circles of instruction" but one can have an idea of the curriculum involved by referring

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 171.

¹⁶ Webster's Biographical Dictionary. First edition; (Springfield, Mass.: G & C. Merriam Co., 1966), p. 754.

¹⁷ H.A.R. Gibb (ed.), The Travels of Ibn Battuta A.D. 1325-1354. Translated with revisions by C. Deffreymy and B.R. Sanguinetti. (Cambridge: At the University Press, 1958), p. 133.

to Hammiuddhn Khan's History of Muslim Education.¹⁸ As regards the curriculum in a typical Islamic educational institution during medieval times Khan wrote the following:

Unfortunately, definite and authentic information concerning curricula adopted by Muslims in different countries and at different times has not been preserved, but there are occasional mentions in various books which can help a student of Islamic educational system give a fair idea of the principles on which education was based in Islamic countries.¹⁹

After stressing the basic importance of Qu'ran, Khan listed the following as generally constituting the Islamic curriculum between the twelfth and sixteenth centuries: Syntax, Literature, Logic, Islamic law, Tafsir (Commentary on the Qur'an), Hadith (The Traditions of Muhammad), Tasawwuf (Mysticism) and Scholasticism. One can therefore say that this curriculum was used in the Umayyad mosque in Damascus as well as similar mosques during the period. In addition to the list above, one might probably add science on the strength of the report by the Muslim historian, Ibn Khaldun (1332-1406), a contemporary of Ibn Battuta. Khaldun who travelled extensively around the Mediterranean Sea stated in his Muqaddimah that there was superior scientific instruction in the Arabic countries of the East, such as Egypt, as opposed to the

¹⁸ M. Hammiuddin Khan, History of Muslim Education, Vol. I, (From 712-1750 A.D.), First edition; (Karachi: All Pakistan Educational Conference, 1967).

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 134.

countries of the West such as Spain. He stated:

In the East the tradition of scientific instruction has not ceased to be cultivated. Scientific instruction is very much in demand and greatly cultivated in the East²⁰

Since Damascus was a large Arabic city in the Near East it is reasonable to assume that scientific instruction featured prominently in its educational institutions.

Ibn Battuta also described the method of instruction of children used by teachers

... each of whom leans back upon one of the pillars of the mosque, dictating to the children and making them recite, for they abstain from writing down the Qur'an on their tablets out of reverence for the Book of God (lest it suffer pollution), and so recite it from dictation only.²¹

Dictation and memorization were, therefore, essential features of the teaching-learning process in the elementary school while the Qur'an constituted the basic textbook. Battuta's account further indicates that different teachers taught different subjects and that the teacher of calligraphy used material from "books of poetry and the like"²² and not from the holy Qur'an for fear of desecrating it.

In addition to his account of the Umayyad mosque, Ibn Battuta mentioned other Islamic educational institutions in

²⁰ Franz Rosenthal, (trans.), Ibn Khaldun, The Muqaddimah: An Introduction to History, Vol. 2, (New York: Pantheon Books, 1958), p. 431.

²¹ H.A.R. Gibb, op. cit., p. 133.

²² Ibid.

Damascus including the Samsamiya, Nuriya and Sharabishiya colleges. He attended lectures in the Umayyad mosque and was subsequently given diplomas by learned scholars.

Fraser and Brickman have indicated that "the seventeenth century witnessed increasing and deeper international contacts in culture and education."²³ This observation was no less true of European countries such as England, France and Russia whose social conditions were generally recorded by travellers. Russia attracted several visitors during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Adam Olearius's detailed account of his journeys to Russia in 1633 described the social life in that country with an emphasis on the prevalence of ignorance. Olearius stated that "the Russians do not love the liberal arts and the lofty sciences, much less occupy themselves with them" and that "they remain untutored and uncouth."²⁴

This gloomy picture of the state of learning in seventeenth century Russia gave way to a brighter one in William Coxe's account written during the latter part of the eighteenth century. During his travels through northern Europe in 1778 Coxe made observations of Russian social conditions in his journal. His account of Russian education

²³ Stewart E. Fraser and W.W. Brickman, op. cit., p. 8.

²⁴ Samuel H. Baron, (trans.), The Travels of Olearius in Seventeenth-Century Russia, (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1967), p. 131.

dealt with the Academy of Fine Arts, the Academy of Sciences, the University of Moscow and the Gymnasia. He traced the historical development of the Academy of Sciences and noted its exceptional achievements during the reign of the Empress Catherine who gave the institution every possible encouragement. The academy's scholars were reported to have gone on expeditions

... to pursue their inquiries on the different sorts of earths and waters; on the best methods of cultivating the barren and desert spots; ... on breeding cattle, and particularly sheep; on the rearing of bees and silkworms; ... on the arts and trades; and on the indigenous plants to form a *Flora Russica*....²⁵

In addition they were to make geographical, astronomical and meteorological observations as well as describe accurately the customs, history, traditions and religions of the Russian empire. Coxe referred to the academy's publications which

... abound with ingenious and elaborate disquisitions on various parts of science and natural history, which reflect great honour upon their authors; and it may not be an exaggeration to assert, that no society in Europe has more distinguished itself for the excellence of its publications, particularly in the abstruse parts of the pure and mixed mathematics.²⁶

Further complimentary remarks were made on the academy's library as well as the museum with its large collection of plants, animals, minerals, coins and antiquities.

²⁵ William Coxe, Travels in Poland, Russia, Sweden and Denmark, Vol. 3, Fifth edition; (London: Printed for T. Cadell, Jun. and W. Davies, 1802), pp. 161-162.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 164.

Coxe similarly gave an account of the Academy of Arts to which students were admitted at the age of six. The curriculum at this stage comprised reading, writing, arithmetic, drawing, French and German. At the age of fourteen the students selected any of the following subjects for intensive study: painting, engraving, carving and watchmaking.²⁷

Coxe also visited the University of Moscow whose courses of study, he noted, included the following:

(1) History of Russian Law; (2) Cicero's Orations against Catiline, Virgil's Aeneid, the Plays of Plautus and Terence, Russian, Latin Poetry and Prose; (3) Arithmetic, Trigonometry and Optics; (4) Ancient and Modern History; (5) Moral Philosophy; (6) Clinical Medicine; (7) A Comparison of Russian and Roman Law; (8) Logic and Metaphysics; (9) Pathology, Dietetics and Therapeutics; (10) Botany; (11) Anatomy; (12) German.²⁸

The journals of visitors to Britain during the eighteenth century often made references to educational institutions and practices. For example, in his descriptions of English customs and education, Carl Philip Mortiz, the German theologian who toured England in 1782,

²⁷ Ibid., p. 192.

²⁸ William Coxe, op. cit., Vol. I, fifth edition, pp. 373-374.

very often compared the social institutions of England with those of Germany. He referred to the English academy as being similar to its counterpart in Germany in respect of classroom arrangement, although Latin teaching methods in English schools seemed shocking to him. He observed:

He (the school master) had for assistant teacher a young clergyman who was sitting in the chair giving a lesson in Latin and Greek As we stepped into the room he was listening to the boys declining their Latin in the old humdrum way, and it rang strangely in my ears when I heard, for example, the Latin 'viri' pronounced as we should spell it in German 'weirei'.²⁹

He also wrote a description of the organization, curricula and activities in the English schools and further observed that by being kind the English parent, unlike his German counterpart, helped the child to develop his personality freely. Thus he stated:

Parents, even those not well off, seem to be kind and indulgent and do not crush the spirit of the young with blows and curses so much as ours do. Children should learn to set a value on themselves early in life; yet our lower classes bring up their children to accept the same slavery under which they themselves groan.³⁰

This comparative observation apparently emphasized a difference in child training practices in Germany and England. Moritz was struck by a difference which, in his

²⁹ Carl Philip Moritz, Journeys of a German in England in 1782. Translated and edited by Reginald Nettel. (New York, Chicago: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1965), pp. 65-66.

³⁰ Ibid., p. 68.

opinion, was of significance in the development of the child's future personality.

The travel reports on foreign education cited in this chapter can be found to be simple descriptive accounts. They also generally lacked detail. In certain cases, as in Moritz's account of English academies, simple comparisons were made of some features of one system with those of another.

An important development with the travel reports was the publication of travel guides which became numerous in Europe during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. This was a period of explorations and cultural contacts and the guides fulfilled an important function by helping to discipline the foreign observations of travellers. Some of the guides gave useful advice as to necessary preparations to be made before setting out, how to behave abroad and what things to observe critically.³¹ So far as educators were concerned the most useful travel guides were those containing questionnaires which facilitated the compilation of information on foreign education. An example of such work was Leopold Berchtold's Essay to Direct and Extend the Inquiries of Patriotic Travellers³² which contained several questions on

³¹ For example Albertus Meirus, Certain briefe and speciall instructions for gentlemen, merchants, students, souldiers, marriners, etc., (London: John Wolfe, 1589).

³² Leopold Berchtold, Essay to Direct and Extend the Inquiries of Patriotic Travellers, (London, 1789). Partly reprinted in Stewart Fraser, Jullien's Plan for Comparative Education 1816-1817, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 133-147.

various topics including agriculture, manufacturing industries, education, customs, manners, the nobility and defence. Leopold Berchtold (1759-1809) was a German philanthropist who regarded the questionnaire as a useful means of comparatively analysing social institutions and practices in foreign countries. He believed that the systematic study of foreign educational systems could produce a body of useful knowledge.

A few of Berchtold's questions are here reproduced to illustrate the type and scope of the questions the tourist was encouraged to ask, with reference to public education:

(i) What is remarkable concerning public education in former times, and in what does the modern system chiefly differ from the ancient?

(ii) Is the present public education calculated to improve both the heart and the understanding of the scholar, or in what deficient?

(iii) Do the professors of public schools generally possess the necessary qualifications?

(iv) By whom are the public professorships instituted? and what is their salary?³³

It is evident that the questions were predominantly of the fact-finding type. They were intended as an enlightened line of inquiry for those travellers dedicated to intelligent and systematic examination of educational conditions in foreign countries. Fraser has indicated that Berchtold's Essays became very popular throughout Europe and "was a standard travelling companion for those embarking on the grand

³³ Stewart Fraser, op. cit., pp. 140-141.

tour of the continent or completing their formal studies in education."³⁴ This piece of evidence suggests that serious students of foreign education must have been thoroughly familiar with Berchtold's work which must have influenced some comparative educators of the nineteenth century. Fraser has remarked that Marc Antoine Jullien of Paris, usually called the "father of comparative education",³⁵ did in fact make extensive use of Berchtold's questionnaire in his Plan, considered to be "the first text on the theory and practice of comparative education...."³⁶

It may be noted here that some critics of the grand tour emphasized the necessity of first studying one's own cultural institutions before embarking on a trip abroad. This, they explained, was necessary to provide the basis for making comparisons when tourists came to consider the social conditions of foreign countries. Otherwise the tour degenerated into a mere sight-seeing spree without any educational value. Hence Priestley remarked:

³⁴ Stewart Fraser and W.W. Brickman, op. cit., p. 16.

³⁵ Stewart Fraser, "Count Leopold Berchtold: Eighteenth Century Educational Travel Counsellor," Peabody Journal of Education, Vol. 40, July 1962, No. 1, p. 6.

³⁶ Ibid.

How can ... comparisons be made, or any judgment formed of the constitution and laws of other countries with respect to our own, when that constitution, and those laws with which they are to be compared, are unknown?³⁷

A thorough knowledge of one's own social institutions was therefore considered to be an essential prerequisite for making valid comparisons with other systems. Priestley's remark very well applied to comparative education which required that the student first familiarized himself with his own educational system before setting out to study other systems.

The foregoing has served to indicate that the first developmental stage of comparative education was one in which writers concerned themselves primarily with simple descriptive reports of foreign educational systems. Occasionally simple comparisons were made between two educational systems. Also occasionally some writers made value judgements about foreign educational practices. So far as content was concerned the reports covered various aspects of education such as curriculum, administration, organization, and teachers. However they were simple, fragmentary and unsophisticated. They were necessarily of this nature because they were the work of non-professionals who were prompted by the strangeness of foreign educational institutions to record their

³⁷ Joseph Priestley, An Essay on a Course of Liberal Education for Civil and Active Life, (London: 1795), p. 91. Cited in S.E. Fraser and W.W. Brickman, op. cit., p. 9.

observations for the benefit of others. Despite their nature these simple travel reports represent the first developmental stage of comparative education.

CHAPTER III

THE STAGE OF "HUNTING EXPEDITIONS"

During the nineteenth century as well as the early twentieth century the study of foreign educational systems received a great deal of impetus. In the West, educators toured several European countries in order to borrow useful lessons from those systems which were considered to be excellent models for emulation. In the East, educators from Japan toured the U.S.A. and Europe for a similar purpose. France and the German state of Prussia were generally regarded as having the best in educational institutions and practices for emulation. The motivation now for studying foreign educational systems was to borrow useful ideas from other countries in order to reform one's own system. The travels of enthusiastic educators in search of new educational ideas has been appropriately described by Thut and Adams as "hunting expeditions".¹

In the eighteenth century the Prussian government had made laws to ensure that every locality established and maintained a school which was well organized. After her defeat in the Napoleonic wars Prussia decided to rebuild herself into a strong nation. It was to education that she looked

¹I.N. Thut and Don Adams, Educational Patterns in Contemporary Societies, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964), p. 4.

for the regeneration of the national spirit. The King, Frederick William III, declared:

Though we have lost many square miles of land, though the country has been robbed of its external power and splendor, yet we shall and will gain in intrinsic power and splendor, and therefore, it is my earnest wish that the greatest attention be paid to public instruction The State must regain in mental force what it has lost in physical force.²

Subsequently there was an extensive reorganization of elementary education in Prussia. A Department of Public Instruction was created, Prussian teachers were sent to Switzerland to study Pestalozzi's methods and teachers' seminaries based on Pestalozzi's ideas were subsequently established throughout the country. Secondary schools were also improved. The overall improvements in her public education made Prussia a model for emulation by other countries.

Just as Prussia did at the time of King Frederick William III, France also completely reorganized her educational system under Napoleon Bonaparte. Therefore France and Prussia had both produced types of educational systems considered to be efficient for the general development of a nation. If other countries decided to emulate countries such as Prussia and France, the basic assumption must have been the following: If these nations have become politically, socially and economically strong it must be due to the superior systems of

²E.P. Cubberley, The History of Education, (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1920), p. 567.

education they have devised for the upbringing of their young. The question must therefore have been naturally asked: Why should we not borrow from these foreign countries in order to improve our own educational systems?

The following section indicates some of the notable comparative educators who participated in this activity of educational borrowing, as well as the particular type of literature which emerged in the process.

In France a pioneer in comparative education was Victor Cousin (1792-1867). He was the Director of the Higher Normal School of France and contributed much to the reorganization and improvement of French public education. In order to reform further the French educational system, Cousin was sent by the French Government to the German states and particularly to Prussia to examine and report on the system of elementary education, teacher training and school administration which had attracted so much attention throughout Europe. His Report³ praised Prussian education which he considered to be far superior to that of France. He regarded the Prussian school law as the most perfect and comprehensive, and called on the French Government to promulgate a new law for primary education in France.

³M. Victor Cousin, Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia. Translated by Sarah Austin. (London: Effingham Wilson, Royal Exchange, 1834).

Section one of the report dealt with the organization and functions of the ministry of public instruction. It gave a detailed description of how the minister was assisted by his council in administering public instruction throughout the ten provinces of Prussia. Section two dealt with the following aspects of primary education: (1) the duty of parents to send their children to school, (2) the duty of parishes to support schools financially, (3) curriculum and levels of instruction, (4) the preparation of teachers and their conditions of service, (5) organization and administration and (6) the role of private schools. Section three described in detail the training of teachers in normal schools and included special accounts on selected institutions. For example, Cousin included a detailed report on the Potsdam Normal School as regards its history and organization. This report was actually prepared by the director of the institution for the Prussian government in 1826. Cousin quoted it in his study to give his readers "an accurate and complete idea of the material and moral condition, -- of the whole internal life, -- of one of the best primary normal schools of Prussia."⁴

The Cousin Report included a verbatim account of the Prussian law of 1819 which controlled education throughout the country.⁵ It also made many references to education in

⁴ Ibid., p. 239.

⁵ Ibid., p. 25.

France which was compared to that in Prussia. For instance, on the German burgher schools and French communal colleges Cousin observed:

In general, the German burgher schools, which are a little inferior to our communal colleges in classical and scientific studies, are incomparably superior to them in religious instruction, geography, history, modern languages, music, drawing, and national literature.⁶

He recommended that some of the French educational institutions be reorganized and patterned after the German burgher schools. In the conclusion to his report he called upon Frenchmen to forget their past rivalries with Prussia and to adopt whatever good elements there were in its educational system. He stated:

The experience of Germany, and particularly of Prussia, ought not to be lost upon us. National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriates.⁷

Cousin's report was the basis of the Guizot law of 1833 which provided for: (a) the compulsory establishment of primary schools in all the communes of France, (b) higher primary schools in the towns and cities, (c) more normal schools for the preparation of teachers, (d) qualified primary school inspectors who were to be civil servants and (e) state certification for all primary school teachers. The implementation of the Guizot law of 1833 resulted in several

⁶ Ibid., p. 119.

⁷ Ibid., p. 292.

improvements in French public education. Cousin's report was translated into English by Sarah Austin and had some influence on educational thinking in England and other European countries as well as America. American educators, including Barnard, Stowe and Mann, showed much appreciation for it and, in fact, Stowe's Report on Elementary Instruction in Europe presented to the Ohio Legislative Assembly in 1837 recommended that the Prussian system be adopted. It was partly Cousin's commendation of the Prussian teacher training system which led to the establishment of the first state teacher training institution in Massachusetts in 1839.⁸

Matthew Arnold (1822-1888), the celebrated English poet and literary critic, was a prominent English inspector of schools from 1851 to 1882. His Reports on Elementary Schools from 1852 to 1882 contain a wealth of information about English education during the second half of the nineteenth century. In 1858 when the Newcastle Commission was appointed to study public education in England, Matthew Arnold was selected as an assistant commissioner to study conditions on the European continent in order to give a comparative perspective to the Commission's report. He was assigned to France, Switzerland and Holland. His several years' experience as a school inspector enabled him to make critical evaluations as well as fairly sophisticated

⁸ E.P. Cubberley, op. cit., pp. 751-752.

comparisons between English educational practices and those he studied on the European continent. In 1861 he published his report separately⁹ soon after its publication in the Newcastle Commission Report.

The introduction to Arnold's report (republished separately in 1879 as an essay entitled "Democracy"¹⁰) together with chapters thirteen and fourteen contain his central argument that in a democracy it is the responsibility of the state to provide public education for every citizen. France was making attempts to achieve this objective, but England was not. In chapter thirteen of the report there is an analysis of French education, constant comparisons being made with that of England. On the subject of the state and religion, Arnold contrasted the non-denominational character of the French state with the predominantly denominational character of the English state and indicated the effect the respective stands had on public education. Thus he observed of the French system that it maintained its own unity and that

... in their relations with the State, with the civil power, all denominations have to meet upon a ground; the State does not make itself denominational, they have to make themselves national.¹¹

⁹ Matthew Arnold, Popular Education of France with Notices of That of Holland and Switzerland, (London: Longman, Green, Longman and Roberts, 1861).

¹⁰ Matthew Arnold, Mixed Essays, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1879), pp. 1-47.

¹¹ Culture and the State: Matthew Arnold and Continental Education, with introduction and notes by Paul Nash, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1966), p. 84.

By contrast he remarked that in England the state made itself denominational with the various denominations thus offering them "no example of a civil unity in which religious divisions are lost; in which they meet as citizens, though estranged as sectaries."¹² As a result the state in England, Arnold noted, had been betrayed into several anomalies and created an educational system far more irritating to the various religious sects than if it had ignored them. On the other hand the French system was devoid of anomalies because the neutrality of the state in religious matters enabled the state school inspectors, for instance, to discharge their duties impartially as civil servants rather than as representatives of religious groups.

Other comparisons made by Arnold covered such subjects as the organization of school inspection, educational legislation and the general organization of public education which was on a voluntary basis in England but highly centralized in France. He also made comparative observations in his other educational writings. These included Schools and Universities on the Continent¹³ and A French Eton.¹⁴ In the latter work he advocated the study of French models in order to improve the

¹² Ibid.

¹³ Matthew Arnold, Schools and Universities on the Continent, (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1868).

¹⁴ Matthew Arnold, A French Eton; or Middle Class Education and the State, (London and Cambridge: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1864).

secondary schools of England. He stated:

To see secondary instruction treated as a matter of national concern, to see any serious attempt to make it both commensurate with the numbers needing it and of good quality, we must cross the Channel....¹⁵

Arnold's wide experience enabled him to recognize some of the problems facing students of comparative education, namely, (1) the reliability of statistics which is sometimes questionable and (2) the difficulty of making international comparisons on account of differences in the use of educational terminology. With reference to popular education in England and the European continent he observed that it was fallacious for statements such as the following to be made: "it appears that in 1858 the proportion of scholars to population was, in England and Wales, 1 to 7.7; in Holland, 1 to 8.11; in France, 1 to 9; and in Prussia, 1 to 6.27,"¹⁶ and then rejoice that England came next to Prussia in excellence. Arnold considered such a statement to be fallacious because the basis for the statistics in the case of England and Wales "appears in a very different way, and on very different evidence, from the way and the evidence by which the proportion of scholars to population in France or Prussia is established."¹⁷ He explained that in France or Prussia there were series of

¹⁵ Culture and the State, op. cit., p. 110. By the Channel, of course, he meant the English Channel.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 150.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 151.

administrative authorities with the machinery and power to collect statistics. In England and Wales, on the other hand, there were no such facilities so that eventually the statistics procured covered only one-eighth of the country, thus causing the authorities to make "a generalization as to the remainder."¹⁸ Under such circumstances Arnold rightly observed that the statistics were unreliable and any international comparisons based on them were bound to be faulty.

Furthermore the term 'scholar', Arnold observed, did not have the same connotation in all European countries. England could not pride herself with being almost equal to Prussia for having approximately the same ratio of scholars to population because whereas in Prussia the scholar had been exposed to very thorough instruction under competent certificated teachers, this was not the case with England whose schools were largely staffed with uncertificated teachers. He stated:

In England ... out of some two millions and a quarter of children whom our Education Commissioners count as scholars, there are only 920,000 in schools with certificated teachers, or under any public inspection ... all the rest are in schools which give no tangible guarantees of any kind, which do not, therefore, in a foreigner's eyes, possess any real claim to style themselves schools, and their pupils scholars, at all.¹⁹

¹⁸ Ibid., p. 152.

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 153.

Most of Arnold's observations on European education were shrewd and sophisticated. This was due to his extensive knowledge of conditions in Britain and the continent. He toured Europe on three occasions: (a) during 1859 in respect of the Newcastle Commission which studied elementary education, (b) during 1865 in respect of the Taunton Commission which studied secondary and higher education and (c) during 1886 when he made further investigations of elementary education. Arnold was particularly impressed with the French treatment of middle class education, the Prussian state organization of education and the Swiss treatment of compulsory education. His comparative studies led him to the conclusion that some aspects of other educational systems could be profitably adopted by England. However, he warned against the danger of uncritical borrowing. His reports on European education made him a recognized authority on comparative education in nineteenth century England.

The great awakening in education during the nineteenth century was not limited to Europe alone. Educators on the North American continent were similarly stirred to reform their educational systems. Toward this objective they looked to Europe for guidance. They were aware of the potential value of schools for nation building and looked to improved teaching methods as well as better school organization for the achievement of this objective. The new teaching techniques used in Pestalozzian schools in Switzerland greatly

fascinated them and attempts were made to adopt them. It is known for instance that William Maclure, president of the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia (1817-1840), persuaded Joseph Neef, one of Pestalozzi's assistants, to come to Philadelphia to establish a Pestalozzian school.²⁰ Mention has already been made of the fact that in the nineteenth century the educational systems of Prussia and France were generally considered to be excellent models for emulation. Several educators looked to these two countries as well as to Switzerland, for guidance, and North American educators were no exception to this general tendency. Also attracting the attention of some foreign educators was the monitorial school system of instruction used in England.

Of the North American educators who toured Europe for educational borrowing, one of the first was John Griscom (1774-1852). Griscom, a professor of chemistry in New York, toured Europe in 1818 covering England, Scotland, Prussia and Switzerland. In the Pestalozzian school at Yverdon he attended classes in arithmetic, languages and drawing, while in Britain he saw the monitorial school system in operation. It is significant that after his return to New York he established a monitorial school in 1825,²¹ a possible

²⁰ Stuart G. Noble, A History of American Education, Revised edition; (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1956), p. 224.

²¹ H.G. Good, A History of American Education, Second edition; (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1962), p. 173.

indication of the deep impression that type of educational institution made on him.

On his return from Europe, Griscom published the report of his observations.²² In the preface he outlined his reasons for touring European countries to study their educational and social institutions. First, he considered it necessary for America to know about Europe because of the rapid expansion of America's cultural and commercial ties with Europe. Second, he believed that after a period of hostility between America and England, closer contact could contribute to mutual understanding. Third, he believed that America could learn useful lessons from enterprising developments in European education. Griscom's A Year in Europe is a detailed description of various types of schools in vogue in Europe during the first quarter of the nineteenth century. These included monitorial, infant and industrial schools. The report also included descriptive accounts of social, agricultural and industrial reforms that were then in progress in several European countries. Monroe has observed that Griscom's report was "very widely circulated and probably did more to popularize the idea of educational reform than any other force."²³

²² John Griscom, A Year in Europe, 2 volumes; (New York, 1823).

²³ Paul Monroe, Founding of the American Public School System, Vol. 1, (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1940), p. 236.

Other leading American pioneers of comparative education include Henry Barnard (1811-1900) and Horace Mann (1796-1859). Henry Barnard was a lawyer who became the Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut from 1843 to 1849 and was later appointed Commissioner of Education of the United States. Earlier from 1835 to 1837 he had toured several European countries to study their educational systems with the aim of making "plans for the improvement of common schools and particularly in devising modes of operating beneficially for the advancement of the teachers' profession in the States of Rhode Island and Connecticut."²⁴ His report²⁵ was a comprehensive descriptive survey of education in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Russia, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Scotland, Ireland and England. Barnard's method of treating each country was generally according to the following pattern: (a) historical background of the educational system, (b) courses of instruction, (c) methods of instruction and (d) the training of teachers. Barnard was particularly impressed by the Prussian system which "furnishes us with a pattern of excellence in the present state of her public schools"²⁶ and suggested that some of

²⁴ Henry Barnard, National Education in Europe, (Hartford: Published for the Author by Grace, Tiffany and Co., 1854), p. 3.

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 84.

its features could profitably be borrowed by America. He firmly believed Victor Cousin's assertion "that the true greatness of a state does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting what is appropriate."²⁷

In the following quotation Barnard, as the first United States Commissioner for Education, stated his conviction (a) that the comparative study of education could give educators a knowledge of how the problem of public education had been solved in other countries and (b) that certain features of foreign school systems could be borrowed to advantage by America. He stated:

Although not to serve as models or guides as a whole, for our country, yet advantage may be derived from a knowledge of the manner in which attempts have been made to solve the problem of public instruction in other countries. In some features -- the extent to which teaching is regarded as an art, whose methods are to be studied and practiced, the legal recognition of the professional character and public services of the teacher, the importance attached to frequent, intelligent and independent inspection, the enforcement of parental obligation in the matter of regular attendance of children at school, the extension of opportunities of thorough general culture by public institutions of secondary and superior education -- we have much to learn from the experience of several of the European States.²⁸

²⁷ Henry Barnard (ed.), "Mr. Barnard's Labours in Connecticut from 1838-1842," The American Journal of Education, Supplementary Number to Vol. I, (May, 1856), p. 698.

²⁸ United States Office of Education, Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1867-68, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1868), p. xxx.

Barnard's involvement in foreign education was probably unmatched by any individual of the nineteenth century. His major interest was the development of public schools and to improve these he looked to Europe for ideas and examples which he found particularly in Prussia, Switzerland and Holland. He made few comparisons himself, but his detailed descriptive accounts provided adequate material which could be used for comparisons of educational institutions and practices. His monumental American Journal of Education contained articles on educational activities in foreign countries; he edited this publication for twenty-six years from 1855 to 1881. After his appointment as first United States Commissioner of Education in 1867 he organized the United States Bureau of Education. As director of the Bureau he began writing annual reports which contained information on educational developments in U.S.A. The reports also contained accounts of educational activities in foreign countries. Barnard's successors continued this policy of including information on foreign education in the hope that such approach would lead to the development of "a science of comparative pedagogy" (see Appendix E).

Horace Mann (1796-1859) was the first secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education from 1837 to 1848. In that capacity he wrote twelve annual reports which contain a wealth of information about educational developments in Massachusetts and elsewhere. The seventh of these

reports²⁹ was devoted mainly to Europe which he visited in 1843, the following countries being covered by his tour: Germany, Holland, Belgium, England, Ireland, Scotland and France. Like Barnard, Mann believed that much could be gained by a close examination of European educational institutions similar to those of America. He stated that he had visited countries with national systems of education and others with no national systems and that it would be strange if "from all this variety of system and of no system ... many beneficial hints for our warning or our imitation, could not be derived...."³⁰

To Horace Mann, Germany and particularly Prussia was the model of excellence in educational organization, administration and practice. Despite her monarchical government, Prussia could offer many useful ideas for America's educational development. He could see no reason why the best in the Prussian system could not be borrowed and fitted into the democratic matrix of American educational institutions. For instance, if Prussian teaching methods were better, they could (after being stripped of all their contextual political ramifications) be profitably transferred to American schools. Mann's basic assumption here was that

²⁹ Horace Mann, Seventh Annual Report of the Board of Education Together with the Seventh Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board, (Boston: Dutton and Wentworth, State Printers, 1844).

³⁰ Ibid., p. 20.

people were fundamentally alike everywhere in the aspects of growth and development; therefore what was conducive to good learning in one country must be conducive everywhere. Moreover he was convinced that if Prussia could adapt educational practice to meet despotic ends, then America could similarly adapt educational practice to serve democratic aims.

While generally praising the Prussian educational system, particularly teaching methods, Mann was not blind to its pitfalls and weaknesses. For instance he observed that the public schools rarely encouraged individual responsibilities concerning citizenship and that religion was generally used to enhance political servility. Furthermore, he felt that there was little transfer of the skills learned at school to life in general and that students were not prepared to participate in the political life of the state.

Horace Mann's Seventh Annual Report was mainly descriptive but contained several value judgements about European education, weighted rather heavily in favor of the Prussian system. The value of his work lay probably in its criticism of the attitude that what was found outside one's own country was not worth knowing.

Egerton Ryerson (1803-1882) was the Chief Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada (now Ontario) from 1844 to 1876. He was instrumental in helping to formulate and establish the common school system of Upper Canada which

later became an educational model for Upper Canada, Western Canada and to a less extent Eastern Canada. Soon after his appointment he decided to go on a tour of Europe and U.S.A. to study various educational systems before beginning his work. This was the era of the common school revival in the United States when educators like Horace Mann and Henry Barnard toured European countries to study their educational systems. Therefore it was quite natural for Ryerson to go on an educational tour of Europe. Referring to the educators who made a significant contribution to the accelerated improvement of Canadian education at this period, Phillips makes the following observation:

The chief education officers first appointed by the provinces had the opportunity to give the movement direction and increasing impetus. Some, like Dawson, Forrester, and Rand of Nova Scotia, and Ryerson of Upper Canada, showed the energy and resourcefulness of Horace Mann, and achieved comparable success.³¹

In a way, therefore, one might designate Ryerson as the Horace Mann of Upper Canada. Ryerson left Canada for Europe in November 1844 and visited schools in several countries including Great Britain, Ireland, France, Holland, Prussia and other German states, Switzerland as well as the schools of New York and the New England states. He obtained useful information from the institutions he visited. For instance he was impressed by (a) Prussia's teacher training

³¹ Charles E. Phillips, The Development of Education in Canada, (Toronto: W.J. Gage & Co., Ltd., 1957), p. 255.

program as well as her strong central system of administration, (b) Ireland's handling of the religious question as well as her system of national textbooks and (c) Massachusetts' educational system which was efficiently managed by popularly elected boards of trustees. Of all the systems studied, however, that of Ireland apparently made the deepest impression on him and most aspects of which he therefore subsequently incorporated into the Canadian system. Hence Adams remarks:

As an educator, Egerton Ryerson's main achievement was the establishment of a common school system in Upper Canada based on the Irish National School System.³²

On returning from his European tour Ryerson subsequently published his report on a projected scheme of public instruction for Upper Canada. After the Governor-General-in-Council had approved the report Ryerson was directed to prepare a bill to give effect to his recommendations; this he did in 1846. The Report³³ made numerous references to the educational systems of Europe and the U.S.A. to justify the proposals. Its first part laid down the following principles of the Upper Canada educational system, namely, (a) that it should be universal and practical, (b) that it should be founded on religion and morality, and (c) that it should

³² Howard Adams, The Education of Canadians 1800-1807: The Roots of Separatism, (Montreal: Harvest House, 1968), p. 57.

³³ Egerton Ryerson, Report on a System of Public Instruction for Upper Canada, (Lovell and Gibson, 1847).

develop the intellectual and physical powers. The curriculum proposed included such subjects as civil government, natural philosophy, political economy, biblical history and morality and the three R's. Religious instruction received elaborate attention in the first part of the report. Ryerson distinguished clearly between religion and dogma and advocated the teaching of the Bible without offending any sectarian interests. In this connection he made references to France and Germany as well as Ireland which had achieved this objective without creating denominational frictions.

The second part of the report dealt with the machinery of the proposed system. An outline of the main types of schools in Germany and France was given and then the following system recommended for Canada: (a) common schools for every section of a township, (b) district model schools, corresponding to the German trade schools, (c) district grammar schools, corresponding to the German higher burgher schools and gymnasia and (d) normal schools on the pattern of those of France, Germany and Ireland. The second part of the report also dealt with school textbooks, control and inspection by the government as well as the role of local organizations in public education.

It is important to note the extent to which Ryerson borrowed elements from foreign educational systems and incorporated them into the system of Upper Canada. Putman has observed of Ryerson that:

New England, New York, Germany, and Ireland gave him models, and his genius was shown in the skill with which he adapted these to suit the needs of Upper Canada.³⁴

Ireland was particularly attractive as a model for Ryerson because he adopted several features of the Irish educational system. Two examples of such borrowing were the use of the Irish National Readers in Upper Canada and the patterning of Normal Schools after those of Ireland. While in Ireland Ryerson became favourably impressed with Irish methods of teaching as well as the National Irish Readers then in use in elementary schools. Considering the readers to be superior to all others he knew he decided to introduce them into Canadian schools. Concerning these books he wrote to one Patrick Thornton on December 10, 1846:

They are the most popular and the most extensively used and the cheapest series of school books in the British Empire; -- and have even been translated into several European Languages, and are used in several countries of the Continent of Europe....³⁵

The Board of Education for Upper Canada eventually approved the adoption of the readers in its schools and arranged to "present to each County and City Council in Upper Canada a set of the Irish National School Books."³⁶

³⁴ J.H. Putman, Egerton Ryerson and Education in Upper Canada, (Toronto: William Briggs, 1912), p. 267.

³⁵ J.G. Hodgins, Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada, Vol. VI, p. 289. Cited in Sylvia Carlton, "Egerton Ryerson and Education in Ontario, 1844-1877." Ph. D. dissertation, Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1950, p. 175.

³⁶ Sylvia Carlton, op. cit., p. 177.

Also as regards the establishment of normal schools Ryerson followed largely the Irish models. On this point Putman has noted that Ryerson was

... most favourable impressed with the Dublin Normal and Model Schools, as managed by the Commissioners of the Irish National Board of Education, and our first Normal School was modelled largely after the Dublin type.³⁷

While in Paris on March 31, 1845 Ryerson wrote to Reverend Alexander Macnab, Acting Chief Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada, directing that J.G. Hodgins³⁸ be sent to Ireland for about six months to attend "the teachings and instruction in the whole course required at the Central Normal and Model Schools of the Royal Commissioners of National Education in Dublin."³⁹ Hodgins visited Ireland in May 1845 to make a thorough study of teacher training methods. Ryerson had hoped that Hodgins would eventually accept the post of headmaster of the Upper Canada Normal School after it had been established. When Hodgins declined the offer Ryerson arranged with the Irish National Board of Education to provide the required headmaster to ensure that the Irish system would be established in Canada. Subsequently the Irish National Board selected one Thomas Jeffrey Robertson to become the first headmaster of the Upper Canada Normal School; he had been an

³⁷ J.H. Putman, op. cit., p. 232.

³⁸ John George Hodgins (1821-1912) was a civil servant and historian who became Ontario's deputy minister of education in 1876.

³⁹ Sylvia Carlton, op. cit., pp. 274-275.

inspector of Irish public schools, chief inspector of the Dublin Normal School and one of the secretaries of the Irish National Board of Education.⁴⁰

The evidence adduced above indicates that Ryerson studied foreign school systems with the objective of educational borrowing just as Horace Mann and Henry Barnard did for the U.S.A. His study of school systems in Europe and the U.S.A. enabled him to reform the public schools of Upper Canada.

Similar activities in educational borrowing went on in Asia during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Japan was particularly important in this respect. When Japan abandoned her isolationist policy and opened her doors to the outside world in the 1860's, she endeavoured to adopt several social institutions and practices from the Western countries, especially the U.S.A.

In order to make Japan a new state along Western lines an effective modern educational system was a prime requisite. To eradicate illiteracy a compulsory education program was initiated in 1872. At the same time the highly centralized organization of the French educational system was adopted and Japan was divided into eight university districts which were also subdivided into thirty-two secondary school districts.⁴¹

⁴⁰ Sylvia Carlton, op. cit., pp. 276-277.

⁴¹ Chitoshi Yanaga, Japan Since Perry, (Hamden, Connecticut: Archon Books, 1966), pp. 100-101.

Thus the administrative organization of Japanese schools was patterned after the model in France. However, the curricula followed the American model. This was the result of the work of the Iwakura mission sent by the Emperor Meiji in 1872 to tour U.S.A. (a) to ratify treaties with the American government and (b) to study the cultural institutions and practices of those foreign countries to enable Japan to adopt the useful ones.

The Iwakura mission⁴² had an educational section headed by Tanaka Fujimaro, the senior secretary of the Japanese Department of Education. He was charged with the responsibility of making a thorough study of the American educational system. With the assistance of the Japanese minister in Washington and the United States Commissioner of Education, Fujimaro made personal contacts with leading American educators and decided to employ some of them as educational advisers to the Japanese government.

The objective, of course, was to transplant American educational ideas and practices to Japan. In the pursuit of this objective David Murray (1830-1905) of Rutgers University was appointed to the Japanese Ministry of Education in 1873 as adviser and superintendent in charge of educational administration.⁴³ Also Marion M. Scott, an American, was

⁴² The Iwakura mission included fifty-four young Japanese students who were placed in American educational institutions.

⁴³ Hugh Borton, Japan's Modern Century, (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1955), pp. 175-176.

invited to train the first teachers. So far as textbooks were concerned "American primary school textbooks were translated in toto for use in the Japanese schools."⁴⁴ It is estimated that no less than 5,000 foreigners were employed to instruct Japanese students especially in the sciences and technology.

Chitoshi Yanaga has observed of Japan that:

The history of three-quarters of a century, beginning in the 1870's, could very well be characterized as a continuous process of adoption and adaptation of European and American philosophies, theories, techniques, methods, organization, and administration within the framework of broad national policies.⁴⁵

This is an undeniable fact. From Germany for instance, Japan adopted Herbartian ideas, first through Japanese students in Germany and second, through Professor Emil Hausknecht who began lecturing on pedagogy at Tokyo University in 1887. Yanaga has indicated that Japan adopted German educational theories because they harmonized with her aspiration to encourage nationalism; moreover it was in line with the general trend in the mid-eighties, namely,

the adoption of German ideas, institutions, and practices in many fields, including government administration, military organization, science, medicine, police, philosophy, history, and even literature.⁴⁶

⁴⁴ Ibid., p. 176.

⁴⁵ Chitoshi Yanaga, op. cit., pp. 107-108.

⁴⁶ Ibid., p. 109.

If the German influence was considerable, the influence of American ideas and methods was even stronger and more permanent. Following the visit of George Trumbull Ladd, Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy at Yale in 1900, the Japanese interest in educational philosophy, psychology and pedagogics was greatly stimulated. In the 1920's the pragmatism of John Dewey exerted a strong influence on Japanese educators through his Democracy and Education which literally became the bible of liberal and progressive leaders in education. Several innovations such as the Dalton plan, the platoon plan and the project method were adopted and incorporated into the Japanese educational system.

The idea of educational borrowing runs through the comparative education literature of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The question may be raised: Was it all that easy and simple to advocate the transplantation of institutions and practices from one educational system into another? It is useful to examine the views of some of the comparative educators themselves on this matter. The position of Henry Barnard on this subject has already been noted. He believed that any good feature in a foreign system could be profitably borrowed and that whatever was appropriate could be perfected to suit the needs of the borrowing country. Like Barnard, Jullien of Paris also advocated educational borrowing. He strongly recommended the adoption of features of those foreign educational systems which "offer improvements

capable of being transposed from one country to another, with modifications and changes which circumstances and localities would determine suitable."⁴⁷ It is important to note the principle of modification indicated here by Jullien. The blind adoption of other countries' educational institutions and practices without regard to their respective cultural backgrounds was a danger which Jullien apparently sensed.

The problems connected with educational borrowing do not appear to have engaged the consideration of some comparative educators. Victor Cousin falls into this category because he asserted with confidence:

... we may assimilate all that is good in other countries without fear of ceasing to be ourselves.... France is essentially cosmopolitan; this is indeed the source of her influence.⁴⁸

Cousin here suggests that where national character had been strongly established, a country could adopt foreign educational practices and institutions without fear of disrupting her culture.

Like Victor Cousin, Calvin Stowe (1802-1886) of the state of Ohio, U.S.A., believed implicitly in educational borrowing without regard to related problems. After his

⁴⁷ M.A. Jullien, Plan for Comparative Education. Translated from French by Stewart Fraser (ed.), Jullien's Plan for Comparative Education 1816-1817, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 37.

⁴⁸ M. Victor Cousin, op. cit., p. 292.

European tour in 1836, Stowe returned to America to heap praises on the Prussian educational system and recommended its immediate adoption by the Ohio government. Burning with enthusiasm for the wholesale adoption of the Prussian set-up he stated:

It can be done, for it has been done, it is now done, and it ought to be done. If it can be done in Europe, I believe it can be done in the United States: if it can be done in Prussia I know it can be done in Ohio.⁴⁹

Stowe did not appear to have been aware that an educational system developed in a particular cultural context and was therefore peculiar to a particular society, and that implanting a foreign system in another country meant stripping the foreign system of its cultural roots.

Unlike Stowe and Cousin, however, Alexander Bache (1806-1867) exercised considerable restraint in recommending educational borrowing. The trustees of the proposed Philadelphia Girard College for Orphans had commissioned him "to visit all establishments in Europe similar to the Girard College"⁵⁰ with the apparent objective of enabling the home institution to be modelled perfectly on the pattern of the best European institutions. Although Bache visited several similar institutions in Europe, he did not recommend that

⁴⁹ E.W. Knight, Reports on European Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1930), p. 307.

⁵⁰ Alexander Dallas Bache, Report on Education in Europe to the Trustees of the Girard College for Orphans, (Philadelphia: Printed by Lydia R. Bailey, 1839), p. iv.

any of the practices he observed should be copied without consideration of local conditions. He rather cautioned the board of trustees against the tendency because he had the conviction that:

While there can be no doubt that the general principles of education must be ... common to all nations, it must be admitted that systems framed from such general laws would require considerable modification to render them applicable to different countries. Differences in political and social organization, in habits and manners, require corresponding changes to adapt a system of education to the nation; and without such modifications, success in the institutions of one country is no guarantee for the same result in those of another.⁵¹

These words would have been appropriately addressed to Calvin Stowe who insisted that "if it can be done in Prussia I know it can be done in Ohio." It can be seen that to Bache educational borrowing was something to be carefully approached. Political, social and cultural factors were to be scrutinized to ensure that the transplantation was effected without dysfunctional consequences. Moreover borrowing was to be highly selective and the features to be adopted were to be adapted to suit local conditions. Bache made the following observation at the end of his report:

The plan to be presented to them (the board of trustees of Girard College), as far as it is derived from these materials, must be made up of fragments, to be modified as to adapt them to the peculiarities of the College, and to our social and political institutions.⁵²

⁵¹ Ibid., p. 3.

⁵² Ibid., pp. 605-606.

Despite the problems connected with educational borrowing it is a fact that some features of foreign educational systems were copied by other countries in one way or the other. Examples of these include: (a) the adoption of Pestalozzian, Herbartian and Froebelian methods of teaching in European and American schools, (b) the establishment of kindergartens and normal schools, (c) the adoption of the English monitorial systems of instruction in several countries and (d) the adoption of American and European educational ideas and practices by Japan.

The nineteenth century comparative educators, motivated by the desire for educational borrowing, endeavoured to collect all possible information that was available. They required data on several aspects of education including the organization and administration of educational institutions as well as curricula, finance, teacher training, discipline and vocational instruction. This is clear from the reports. It is also evident from the educational journals published during that period of awakening in the development of public schools. Of the journals particular mention may be made of two edited by Henry Barnard, namely, Connecticut Common School Journal and American Journal of Education. Barnard regularly published accounts of several aspects of European education in the former journal. Of these accounts probably the most significant was "Education in other States and Countries" which originally appeared as an appendix to his second report

to the Board of Commissioners so that "the legislature and the people might compare our own system of common schools with those to be found elsewhere."⁵³ The articles in Barnard's second journal dealt largely with teacher training programs, school organization and administration as well as agricultural schools and schools for juvenile delinquents.

The comparative education literature at this period, however, was largely descriptive and unsystematic in approach. It gives the impression that the educators did not devise any clearly defined plan of investigation before setting out on their European tours. Practically anything which caught the eye was recorded. The reports may be generally described as a conglomeration of jottings or rambling accounts.

The essentially descriptive nature of the literature apparently stemmed from the motive for undertaking such studies. Where an educator sets out to study foreign educational systems purposefully to collect examples to improve his own system, he may not be able to devote valuable time to the critical analysis of his data. Nor would he set out with any hypotheses to be tested empirically in the field. The tendency toward the mere collection of data sometimes led to the collection of irrelevant material. An example of this

⁵³Henry Barnard (ed.), "Education in Other States and Countries," Connecticut Common School Journal, Vol. II, (July, 1840), p. 245. Cited by P.D. Travers, "Interest in European Education and the Development of Comparative Education as a subject of study in American Universities and Colleges in the Nineteenth Century," Ed. D. Dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1967, p. 127.

trend was Horace Mann's lengthy description of the ventilation system of the British Houses of Parliament in his account of housing conditions for poor and infant children in Germany.⁵⁴

Another trend arising from the borrowing motive was the tendency for the reports to be generally eulogistic. Educators heaped praises on foreign educational systems. Calvin Stowe was a typical example of comparative educators who tended to have great enthusiasm for foreign educational systems. Some of them appear to have arrived in the foreign countries with preconceived ideas about the prevalent educational institutions and practices. Such preconceptions must inevitably have clouded their judgement and consequently invalidated much of what they reported. Then also there is the possible fact that since the educators generally visited the foreign countries as officials of their governments, they were likely to be presented with evidence calculated to enhance the prestige of the foreign institutions. This must inevitably have led to bias as evidenced by Horace Mann's report on Prussian schools. He stated:

I can only say that, during all the time mentioned, I never saw a blow struck, I never heard a sharp rebuke given, I never saw a child in tears, nor arraigned at the teacher's bar for any alleged misconduct.⁵⁵

The exceptionally excellent atmosphere prevailing at the time of Mann's visit cannot be said to have been typical of

⁵⁴ Horace Mann, op. cit., pp. 50-53.

⁵⁵ Ibid., p. 137.

conditions in the Prussian schools. The tendency toward bias prevented some of the comparative educators from maintaining any reasonable amount of objectivity in their reports. Despite the shortcomings in the literature it can be said that for the first time a laudable attempt was made by educators to report in detail various aspects of education in several countries.

This chapter has attempted to show that educators in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries undertook the comparative study of foreign educational systems with the primary objective of educational borrowing in order to reform their own systems. Prussia, France and Switzerland were among the model European countries visited by educators during this period of great awakening in education. Japan looked to both Europe and America. Several aspects of education were studied including organization and administration, curriculum, discipline, finance, teacher training, school inspection, vocational instruction and the education of destitutes and delinquents. Detailed descriptions of these were recorded and there was practically no attempt at analysis or interpretation. The accounts were generally unsystematic and sometimes contained irrelevant material; they were also generally eulogistic, biased and subjective. The borrowing motive, of course, naturally contributed to such trends since the enthusiasm to emulate excellent educational models tended to drive educators to the mere

collection of information. It also tended to blind some of them or cloud their judgement.

The amount of borrowing appears to have been appreciable. For example, the monitorial system of instruction in England and the normal schools of Prussia and France were copied by several countries. So also were the practical teaching methods in the Pestalozzian institutions in Switzerland. Any attractive innovation in a foreign educational system was considered fit to borrow, irrespective of any possible problems connected with its transplantation.

This stage of "hunting expeditions" in the history of comparative education was a definite step ahead of the former stage of simple travellers' reports. Certainly the literature now was also descriptive as in the former stage. However it was descriptive with a purpose which subsequently changed the character of the literature. The descriptive accounts of foreign educational systems were now very much detailed to enable useful elements in them to be adopted. This was a stage which opened the eyes of educators to developments elsewhere and helped to alter the tendency toward parochialism. What was being done elsewhere now became a frame of reference for educational activities in several countries.

CHAPTER IV

THE STAGE OF INITIAL ATTEMPTS AT A SYSTEMATIC APPROACH

During the nineteenth century a development which ran parallel to the "hunting expeditions" was the beginning of the systematic approach to the comparative study of educational systems. The enthusiasm for educational borrowing was widespread and certainly several nineteenth century educators were infected with it. Nevertheless unlike the majority of them who merely indulged in the indiscriminate collection of data, a few educators stood in a class apart by bringing to their work a disciplined and systematic approach. Jullien, Shuttleworth and Basset were the most important educators in this respect. Some aspects of the work of Bache also exhibited this feature.

What were the motivations for bringing a disciplined approach to bear on some of the studies at this period? The answer may be found in the work of Jullien. At the beginning of his Plan for Comparative Education Jullien dwelt at length on the general decadence of European social life and education in the early nineteenth century. He stated:

Each thinking man who observes the moral state of the different countries of Europe recognizes with grief that education given today, either in private families, or in public schools, is most often incomplete, defective, without coordination and without

continuity in the various steps which it is to cover ... in short, without proportion, neither with the real needs of children and young people, nor with their destination in society, nor with the public needs of nations and governments.¹

Jullien held the conviction that the political and social problems of Europe arose basically from the prevalence of corruption in society. He therefore advocated the removal of

... corruption in its beginning, by bringing man back to a sort of primitive purity through the influence of an education better suited to his nature....²

In order to effect the required educational reforms to bring about the desired improvements in social and moral life, Jullien deemed it necessary to devise the "surest, most efficient and prompt"³ method. In his opinion this "surest, most efficient and prompt" method could be found in the detailed comparative study of all educational systems in Europe. By devising a comparative table depicting all aspects of European educational institutions and practices, Jullien argued that it would be easy for those countries lagging behind to copy those which were advancing. The data for constructing the comparative table were to be collected systematically by means of carefully worded questionnaires.

¹ M.A. Jullien, L'Esquisse. Translated from French by Stewart E. Fraser (ed.), Jullien's Plan for Comparative Education 1816-1817, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 33.

² Ibid., p. 34.

³ Ibid., p. 35.

Jullien therefore advocated a painstaking empirical approach to the study of education, for he considered a store of accurate data as a prerequisite for the reform of education. So also did Basset. Like other nineteenth century comparative educators Jullien and Basset were both motivated to study foreign educational systems in order to reform their own. However they considered it essential to use a disciplined approach rather than the intuitive and haphazard approach of some of their contemporaries.

César-Auguste Basset was a French university professor who between 1806 and 1808 wrote a number of essays to honour the establishment of the Imperial University of France. In his work⁴ he advocated the provision of public education for all and also called for educational reform. He exhorted Frenchmen as follows:

... let us try and cause to disappear the imperfections of our system of education, and let us indicate observation as one of the sources by which we can draw on that which our neighbours have, which is more perfect than our own.⁵

Like his contemporaries Basset endorsed the idea of educational borrowing. However, his position was that this should be preceded by an empirical examination of the data

⁴ César-Auguste Basset, Essais sur l'organisation de quelques parties d'instruction publique, (Paris, 1808). The second edition, issued in 1814 was entitled Essais sur l'éducation, et sur l'organisation de quelques parties de l'instruction publique. Cited by S.E. Fraser, op. cit., pp. 118-132.

⁵ S.E. Fraser (ed.), Ibid., p. 129.

on several educational systems. To him accurate observation was important and he wrote of it as "the direct route"⁶ toward the correction of imperfections in the educational system. He therefore proposed the appointment of an educational commissioner, selected from the university, to tour European countries in order "to observe, compare and expose the facts"⁷ about public education.

In order to avoid intuitive or irrelevant observations Basset proposed a definite framework to guide the research of the commissioner. The commissioner's work was to be executed

1. From the general point of view of physical education;
2. From the general point of view of moral education;
3. From the general point of view of intellectual education;
4. That which is given to the rich;
5. That which is given to the poor.⁸

The framework was intended to focus attention on what Basset considered to be the essential aspects of education, namely, physical, moral and intellectual education as well as the education of the rich and the poor. Included in his work, the commissioner was to examine the internal and external discipline of all educational institutions visited as well as the prevalent forms of rewards and punishments. He was to examine the principles underlying the choice of directors and

⁶ Ibid., p. 119.

⁷ Ibid., p. 129.

⁸ Ibid., p. 129-130.

teachers, the obligations expected of them all as well as the laws controlling them. Basset insisted that the commissioner should endeavour to "discover why such and such a school is found, by comparison with previous times, in a state of glory or decadence in the present time."⁹ Finally, he must not only consult and analyse official reports and regulations but should also "judge men and things according to the real and existing facts and not according to written systems and speculative plans."¹⁰ It is clear, therefore, that Basset was advocating a thoroughly objective and empirical study of education in a comparative perspective.

Following Basset's recommendation, a commission was, in fact, appointed in 1809 on behalf of the Imperial University of France and made to investigate public instruction in the French empire which at this period included several countries of continental Europe. The commission, headed by Cuvier, Inspector General of the Imperial University, toured Germany, Holland and Italy, and subsequently published its report¹¹ which dealt with several aspects of education in the three European countries.

Marc-Antoine Jullien (1775-1848) of Paris was a politician and educator. He is generally referred to as the

⁹ Ibid., p. 131.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Georges Cuvier, Rapports sur l'instruction publique en Allemagne, en Hollande, en Italie, (Paris, 1811).

founding father of comparative education although his Plan¹² strongly bears the imprint of the earlier work by Basset. However, the Plan was the first really comprehensive and systematic attempt to study education comparatively and empirically.

As a matter of fact neither Jullien nor Basset can be credited with having first used the words 'compare', 'comparison' and 'comparative' in the educational context, because these terms had been used earlier by German and Swiss scholars, namely, Johann Peter Brinkman in his Comparison of the Education of Today with that of Antiquity and Examination of which of The Two is most in Accord with Nature, (1784), and Ernst August Evers in his A Fragment of the Aristotelian Art of Education as an Introduction to an Attempt to Compare Ancient and Modern Pedagogy, (1806).

In his Plan Jullien expressed the sentiment that the violent social and political upheavals into which Europe had been thrown for so long resulted from ignorance, the degradation of public and private conscience as well as general apathy toward religious, moral and social values. Education was needed to correct those ills. However he very much deplored the shortcomings of European education. It was the low state of European education which prompted Jullien to recommend educational reform for the regeneration of social

¹² Stewart Fraser (ed.), op. cit.

and moral life. He considered it necessary, however, that the reform should be based on a science of education. He held the view that facts should be examined in a structured way because it was on this basis alone that valid proposals could be made for the improvement of society.

Jullien believed that comparative education, based on a study of educational institutions and methods in European countries, should provide a new way of perfecting public education. Like Basset he recommended the appointment of an international commission on education to undertake detailed comparative studies of educational systems throughout Europe. In order to acquire the necessary data he prepared a series of questions which he classified under the following headings: primary, secondary, higher, normal (teacher training), education of girls and educational legislation. A few of the questions are here reproduced to indicate the kind of data Jullien desired to collect. On public primary schools the following were some of the questions posed:

1. What is the number of students in the primary schools in the commune or in the district?
2. What is the proportion of the total number of these students to that of the population of the commune or of the district?
3. Approximately how many students are grouped under a single director or teacher.¹³

On physical education and gymnastics for students in secondary schools, the following were some of the questions

¹³ Ibid., pp. 56-57.

proposed:

1. What are their most usual games and exercises?
2. Are they accustomed to take long walks on foot, before or after meals?
3. Do they often take baths, cold or warm?¹⁴

According to Jullien the data collected with the help of the questionnaire would be used for the construction of

... comparative table for the principal educational institutions ... of Europe, the different manners in which education and public instruction are organized there, the goals which the complete course of study includes, in each the successive grades of the elementary and common schools, secondary and classical, higher and scientific, and finally the special ones; then the methods according to which youth is taught, the improvements that one has tried to introduce in them little by little, the success more or less obtained.¹⁵

It can be seen from the above quotation that Jullien's proposed table was intended to provide, at a glance, detailed information on several aspects of European education including methods of instruction, the organization of education, curricula, the reforms attempted and the aims of education with respect to primary, secondary and higher education.

Jullien argued that the comparative table would enable one "to deduct from them certain principles, determined rules, so that education might become almost nearly a positive science...."¹⁶ Furthermore the comparative table would make it possible for one to:

¹⁴ Ibid., pp. 69-70

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 34.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 40.

... judge with ease those which are advancing; those which are falling back, those which remain stationary; what are, in each country, the deficient and ailing sections; what are the causes of internal defects which one would have noticed; or what are the obstacles to the ascendancy of religion, ethics, and social advancement, and how these obstacles can be overcome; finally, which parts offer improvements capable of being transposed from one country to another, with modifications and changes which circumstances and localities would determine suitable.¹⁷

It is clear that educational reform was Jullien's basic motive for suggesting a comparative approach to the study of educational institutions and practices. The proposed comparative table would easily indicate which countries were progressing so that their educational systems could be imitated. The passage quoted above makes it clear that Jullien advocated the transplantation of selected features of foreign educational systems into other countries (subject, however, to necessary modifications) in order to reform the home institutions. In fact, he made reference to three instances of educational innovations which had attracted wide attention and which were being advantageously imitated in one way or the other. These were, first, the Pestalozzian and Fellenberg schools in Switzerland which were copied by Prussia and other countries; second, the monitorial school system developed in England by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster which became popular in several European countries; and third,

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 37.

the Ecole Polytechnique of Paris which was closely copied by Russia and Austria.¹⁸

In evaluating his work it can be said that Jullien might be regarded as the first scientifically-minded comparative educator. There is evidence to suggest that the publication of his Plan in 1817 was no accident because this work appeared at a period in European history when the comparative studies were becoming fairly numerous. For instance in 1795 Goethe published his First Sketch of a General Introduction to Comparative Anatomy and in 1816 Franz Bopp, a Berlin professor, published his Comparative Linguistics. Similarly in 1826 Francois Villemain at the Sorbonne published his Comparative Literary Studies. Much earlier in 1782 Monro had published his Essay on Comparative Anatomy. On comparative studies Jullien made the following remark:

Researches on comparative anatomy have advanced the science of anatomy. In the same way the researches on comparative education must furnish new means of perfecting the science of education.¹⁹

Jullien was apparently influenced by the comparative trend of his times and one would therefore agree with Franz Hilker who commented on the publication of Jullien's work as follows:

¹⁸ Ibid., p. 20.

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 41.

... one can hardly regard it as an accident, no, on the contrary one must assume a connection with the rising scientific method of comparison, if, in the year belonging to the same epoch, namely, 1817, the first document of comparative pedagogy appears in print.²⁰

It was unfortunate that Jullien's Plan made little impact on European education after its publication. It "evoked only minor interest in France, and for that matter in Europe,"²¹ although it found its way to America. Jullien himself sent copies in April 1817 to James Hillhouse, United States senator and treasurer of Yale University and to Professor James Kingsley, the librarian at Yale. He sent another copy to Thomas Jefferson. Furthermore, William Russell (1798-1873) translated it from the French into English and published extracts from it in three issues of the American Journal of Education²² in 1826. However, as in Europe, the Plan did not have a revolutionary effect on American education. Despite the general disregard for it, this work was significant because it represented the first attempt to devise a comprehensive instrument for studying education comparatively and empirically.

Alexander Dallas Bache (1806-1867) was appointed

²⁰ Friedrich Schneider, Vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft, (Heidelberg: Quelle und Meyer, 1961), pp. 18-19. Cited by Stewart Fraser, op. cit., pp. 90-91.

²¹ Stewart Fraser, op. cit., pp. 99-100.

²² American Journal of Education, Vol. 1, No. VII, (July), No. VIII, (August); and No. XII, (December, 1826). Cited by Stewart Fraser, op. cit., p. 101.

president of the Girard College for Orphans, Philadelphia, and commissioned by the Board of Trustees to tour similar European institutions in order to fashion Girard into a first class college. For his tour, Bache was to be guided by sixteen heads of inquiry laid down for him by the board. These were contained in the letter of instructions to Bache directing his tour. The heads of inquiry to be applied to each institution visited were as follows: (1) history, (2) organization, (3) government, (4) admissions, (5) procedure for selection to higher studies or employment, (6) curricula, (7) moral and religious instruction, (8) technical and vocational instruction, (9) rewards and punishments, (10) discipline, (11) sports and games, (12) diet and clothing, (13) daily routine and regulations, (14) finance, (15) physical equipment, (16) proportion of orphans to the community.²³

These heads of inquiry were obviously intended to enable Bache to collect data in a systematic and disciplined manner and thus help him to avoid haphazard observations. The board placed a high value on actual observation and warned Bache not to rely too much on information contained in books. Among other things the instructions stated:

²³ Alexander Dallas Bache, Report on Education in Europe to the Trustees of the Girard College for Orphans, (Philadelphia: Printed by Lydia R. Bailey, 1839), pp. iv-vi. See Appendix A.

These general heads of inquiry ... will indicate the wish of the Board that your examination should be thorough and practical. They already possess ... all that books can teach on the subject. It is your especial duty to study the actual working of the machinery of education; to domesticate yourself, if practicable in these institutions, and, by your own personal observation, to distinguish what is really useful from what is merely plausible in theory.²⁴

Like many other nineteenth century writings in comparative education, Bache's report was a descriptive account of educational institutions and practices in several European countries. However he used heads of inquiry to systematize his observations as he toured Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Switzerland, France, Austria and Italy. It is also significant that he used carefully prepared questions to collect data from his informants. On his questionnaire he observed:

I also prepared beforehand a series of questions, to which, when modified to suit the particular establishment in regard to which detailed information was desired, I obtained answers from the head, or from one or more intelligent persons connected with the establishment.²⁵

It may be observed that Bache modified his questions to suit changing conditions in the various establishments he visited. Furthermore, he consulted books and hundreds of documents on public instruction so that he might be correctly guided in his investigations.

²⁴ Ibid., p. vi.

²⁵ Ibid., pp. 8-9.

Although descriptive or reportorial, Bache's work was more sophisticated than the typical nineteenth century writings in comparative education. This observation is based on the following points, namely, (1) the fairly large number of comparisons made, (2) the appreciably high degree of objectivity of the report, (3) the bold statement at the conclusion of the report that there was no model European institution to be copied by Girard College and (4) the extensive appendix listing the documents consulted. Bache included in his report comparative charts depicting curricula in three Prussian gymnasia.²⁶ He also made comparisons of Prussian gymnasia with Scottish and English secondary schools in respect of curriculum, teaching methods, scholarship awards, discipline and organization. Similar comparisons were made between French and English education, English and Prussian education, and finally French and Prussian education. For instance, in comparing curriculum and teaching methods in French and Prussian secondary schools, he stated:

The subjects of secondary instruction in France and Prussia are essentially the same, but the manner of introducing them differs in most important particulars.... the Latin, Greek, German, French, religious instruction, geography, history, mathematics, physics, natural history, writing, drawing, and vocal music, are all studies to be regularly followed. While these branches are equally component parts of the course of the French colleges ... the modern foreign language, drawing and writing, do not enter into the regular course....²⁷

²⁶ Ibid., pp. 477-491.

²⁷ Ibid., pp. 509-510.

It is also significant that Bache included in his report a very elaborate appendix embodying the particulars of the numerous documents he collected and studied for his report. The documents included reports of educational commissions, annual reports of orphanages, laws and documents relating to public instruction as well as prospectuses of public schools. Bache believed that the documents would make his report vivid as well as give his readers the opportunity of correcting any errors of judgement he might have made in his selection of the material. The fact that he clearly indicated his sources of material in so elaborate a manner is proof of his conscientiousness and scholarly approach.

Furthermore, unlike some of his contemporaries he firmly stated that there was no educational institution in Europe which could serve as a model for his American institution. He fully recognized the fact that cultural differences between nations made such copying impossible. He stated at the conclusion of his report:

The Board of Trustees will readily see, from the tenor of this Report, that my examination has not enabled me to select any single institution which ... might ... serve as a model for the Girard College for Orphans.... The trustees of the College have appealed to the experience of Europe to furnish data necessarily wanting in a new country, and it remains for them to apply the experimental deductions thus obtained from the old world with the vigour characteristic of the new.²⁸

²⁸ Ibid., pp. 605-606.

On the whole Bache's method of investigation and the general style of his report were much more sophisticated than those of, say, John Griscom. His work represents one of the early attempts to raise comparative education above the level of mere intuitive reporting.

James Kay-Shuttleworth (1804-1877) was a medical practitioner by profession but left this to devote his life to elementary education in England. He was appointed Assistant Commissioner to the Central Poor Law Board in 1835 and subsequently went to Scotland and Holland to study their systems of education. After his appointment in 1839 as the first secretary of the newly formed Education Department he toured Holland, France, Prussia, Saxony and Switzerland to study their systems of elementary education as well as their teacher training programs.

The significant aspect of Shuttleworth's work in comparative education was that he approached it systematically and with a scientific frame of mind. First of all he studied German to be able to read the documents in their original form and then he procured every book which he thought would be useful for the study. Spolton has indicated that Shuttleworth might have read Jullien's Plan for Comparative Education as well as Dwight's Travels in the North of Germany in the Years 1825 and 1826 which dealt with the comparison between Catholic and Protestant countries in public

education.²⁹ Shuttleworth then set up a hypothesis which he decided to test country by country. His hypothesis was that the extent of the development of elementary education in Europe varied with the effects of the Reformation. To test this hypothesis he selected twenty-seven European states, some Catholic others Protestant, and analysed them to discover the proportion of children in school to the population as a whole. He found this proportion to be 1 in 6 in the case of Prussia which he considered to be quantitatively adequate and therefore used it as a yardstick to evaluate the other European countries. His investigations revealed that with the solitary exception of England whose proportion was 1 in 11.5, the proportions for the remaining Protestant countries were fairly close to Prussia's 1 in 6 ratio. (see Table I). Therefore with reference to his table he drew the following conclusion:

By reference to the following table, extracted from various authorities it will be perceived how far we are correct in tracing to the Reformation the great impulse which education has given to the civilization of Europe.³⁰

Shuttleworth was one of the early researchers in comparative education whose scientific frame of mind helped

²⁹ Lewis Spolton, "Kay-Shuttleworth: Quantitative Comparative Education," Comparative Education Review, Vol. XII, (February, 1968), p. 84.

³⁰ Kay-Shuttleworth, op. cit., Second Period: "Explanation of the Measures of 1839," p. 220. Cited in Lewis Spolton, op. cit., p. 85.

TABLE I
PROPORTION OF SCHOLARS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
TO WHOLE POPULATION

	<u>Pupils</u>	<u>Inhabitants</u>
Thurgovia, Switzerland (1832)	1	in 4.8
Zurich, Switzerland (1832)	1	in 5
Argovia, Switzerland (1832)	1	in 5.3
Bohemia (1833)	1	in 5.7
Wurtemburg	1	in 6
Prussia (1838)	1	in 6
Baden (1830)	1	in 6
Drenthe, Province of Holland (1835)	1	in 6
Saxony	1	in 6
Overyssel, Province of (1835)	1	in 6.2
Neufchate1, Canton of (1832)	1	in 6.4
Frise (1833)	1	in 6.8
Norway (1834)	1	in 7
Denmark (1834)	1	in 7
Scotland (1834)	1	in 10.4
Bavaria (1831)	1	in 8
Austria (1832)	1	in 10
Belgium	1	in 11.5
England	1	in 11.5
Lombardy (1832)	1	in 12.6
France	1	in 17.6
Ireland	1	in 18
Roman States	1	in 50
Lucca	1	in 53
Tuscany	1	in 66
Portugal	1	in 88
Russia	1	in 367

Source: "Second Period: Explanation of the Measures of 1839," p. 220, in James Kay-Shuttleworth, Four Periods of Public Education, London: Longmans, 1862. Cited in Lewis Spolton, op. cit., p. 86.

him to approach his work systematically and methodically. He has been described by Spolton as a quantitative comparative educator because of his statistical, analytical approach. He used the evidence of achievement in Protestant countries to point out that England had neglected elementary education and that it was necessary to reorganize and improve it. In the opinion of Pollard, the really serious pioneering studies in comparative education in England began in the 1830's with Kay-Shuttleworth and not later with Matthew Arnold as stated by some authorities. Pollard remarked:

It is commonly held that the pioneer work in this relatively new field of enquiry began as far as this country (England) is concerned during the second half of the nineteenth century, and was heralded by the important researches of Matthew Arnold. Such was not entirely the case as may be judged from the second report in Four Periods of Public Education which Kay wrote soon after his return from the continent.³¹

This chapter has sought to show that a few of the nineteenth century scholars brought to their work a systematic and disciplined approach. The work of Jullien, Basset, Bache and Shuttleworth stands in a class apart from the generally intuitive and unsystematic approach of their contemporaries, particularly John Griscom and Horace Mann. Of great importance was the gradual emergence of the scientific method present in the work of Jullien and Basset, and most especially Shuttleworth who actually tested a hypothesis empirically to

³¹H.M. Pollard, Pioneers of Popular Education 1760-1850, (London: John Murray, 1956), p. 247. Cited in Lewis Spolton, op. cit., p. 85.

arrive at a conclusion. The foundations of the scientific approach to the study of comparative education were laid during this stage.

CHAPTER V

THE STAGE OF INTERNATIONAL CONCERN

Since the end of the nineteenth century an important motivation for the comparative study of education has been the desire to use education to promote world peace, understanding and betterment. Commenting on the international motivation for studying education Noah and Eckstein have made the following observation:

If curiosity first prompted interest in foreign schools and the desire to learn useful lessons reinforced this interest, a further distinct and important attraction of comparative education was the hope that it would serve the wider interests of humanity, and not just the narrow purposes of national aggrandizement.¹

This meant, of course, that scholars now had to take an international outlook on education. The movement toward a world view in education was an important development particularly after the Second World War. The assumption underlying this international outlook must have been that the world is "interdependent and organic" and "that the world was changing and that it must change for the better."² It may be remarked, however, that international motivation is not only altruistic

¹Harold J. Noah and Max A. Eckstein, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, (London and Toronto: The Macmillan Company, 1969), p. 34.

²Stewart Fraser (ed.), Governmental Policy and International Education, (New York, London, Sydney: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1965), p. 296.

in its implications; it also implies some amount of political and ideological involvement.

The Encyclopedia Americana defines international education as follows:

The term 'international education' is sometimes used to refer to any type of educational relations among nations, including not only formal educational activities, but general cultural relations and informational and propaganda programs. Sometimes 'international education' is taken to mean internationalism in education, which refers to an international point of view or approach to educational subject matter rather than to any specific activities.³

The two interpretations of international education indicated in the above quotation are relevant to the following discussion on international education and its relevance for comparative education.

The movement toward an international view in education may be traced back to the seventeenth century when John Amos Comenius (1592-1670) proposed a pansophic or universal college to accommodate students from all over the world. The aim of this institution was to promote the advancement of knowledge for mutual understanding among all men. Comenius believed that no nation could be secure except in a world united by common ideals of universal brotherhood and understanding. It was his belief that these ideals could be realized through international education, hence his proposal for the

³ Encyclopedia Americana, Canadian Edition, Vol. XV, (Montreal and Toronto: Americana Corporation of Canada Ltd., 1963 edition), p. 249.

establishment of the pansophic college.⁴ The proposal, however, did not immediately materialize. Almost two centuries had to elapse before Marc Antoine Jullien of Paris made similar proposals in his Plan for Comparative Education.

Jullien was Napoleon's diplomatic agent and Assistant Secretary of France's first Department of Education. In his opinion the many social ills in Europe, arising from the political upheavals of the eighteenth century and the early nineteenth century, could be cured through educational reforms. Toward this end, therefore, he proposed the formation of an international commission whose function would be the systematic examination of European educational systems and the collection of educational data. The collected data were to be eventually related and compared, in the form of charts or tables so that those European countries making progress could be quickly identified and emulated. In connection with this proposal Jullien also proposed that an educational bulletin be started. The activities of the international commission were to be published in this bulletin which would also be the medium for the publication of articles aimed at improving teaching methods and education as a whole.⁵ Furthermore he proposed the establishment of a central teacher training institution

⁴M.W. Keatinge (trans.), The Great Didactic of John Amos Comenius, Part II, (London: A and C Black Ltd., 1923), pp. 285-286.

⁵M.A. Jullien, L'Esquisse. Translated from French by Stewart Fraser (ed.), Jullien's Plan for Comparative Education, 1816-1817, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 36-39.

(Normal Institute of Education)⁶ together with similar institutions throughout Europe. The function of the central institution would be to standardize teaching methods in all European countries while the subsidiary establishments were to "procure for themselves mutual help" and "offer useful points of comparison".⁷

In making these proposals for closer international cooperation Jullien was fairly ahead of his time. He envisioned a useful exchange of information as well as the growth of mutual trust and understanding among educators. He believed that if educators could be brought to work together in a spirit of understanding, then it might also be possible to achieve the goal of bringing all nations together. Like Comenius, however, his proposals did not immediately materialize. Nevertheless "his notion of a Union of Nations became a forerunner of the League of Nations."⁸

After Jullien another advocate for international education was Herman Molkenboer, a Dutch lawyer and educator. Molkenboer proposed an international education agency on the assumption that world peace could be achieved only through international understanding. His proposals for an International Council of Education were contained in a small

⁶ Ibid., p. 38.

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ David G. Scanlon (ed.), International Education, A Documentary History, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1960), p. 4.

publication.⁹ He also published a periodical¹⁰ which was available in English, French and German. As ill luck would have it, however, Molkenboer's international movement collapsed owing to the unfavourable response it evoked from European governments.

Like Molkenboer, an American lady in the person of Fannie Fern Andrews also made energetic attempts to establish an international council of education. For this purpose she made an extensive tour of Europe during the three years preceding the First World War, seeking the support of both governmental and non-governmental agencies. She organized an international conference to be held at The Hague in 1914 and to be attended by government officials from the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Germany, U.S.A., France, Greece, Great Britain, Austria, Hungary, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, Switzerland and Japan. Owing to the impending war, however, the response to the invitations was unfavourable and the conference had to be called off. However, soon after the War, Fannie Andrews and other women took advantage of the proposed League of Nations to regenerate the scheme for the formation of an international office of

⁹ Herman Mokenboer, Die Internationale Erziehungs - Arbeit, Einsetzung des Bleibenden Internationalen Erziehungs - Rates, (Flensburg, Aug. Westphalen, 1891). Cited by Scanlon, op. cit., p. 6.

¹⁰ Journal of Correspondence on the Foundation of a Permanent and International Council of Education.

education. They pressed the League of Nations to incorporate the establishment of an international office of education into its activities. Unfortunately this request was not met by the League.¹¹

Later in 1925, however, a group of educators founded the International Bureau of Education (IBE) in Geneva. This was initially a private organization. It later received financial assistance from the Government of Switzerland although other governments did not show similar interest. By 1938, no less than seventeen governments or ministries of education were members of the Bureau. It was conceived as an information centre for all matters relating to education. Its primary object has been to be "a technical and scientific organization at the service of Public Instruction, educational authorities and educationists generally."¹² The IBE has played a significant role in international education since its formation in 1925. Its activities have included the provision of educational data, the conduct of research and the holding of international conferences. Its publications include studies on comparative education, the organization of education in various countries, the training of teachers, the organization and use of school libraries, school inspection and selection of textbooks. Since 1931 ministries of education in several countries have provided the Bureau with yearly reports on

¹¹David G. Scanlon, op. cit., pp. 11-14.

¹²Ibid., p. 76.

education in their countries. These have been published in the Bureau's educational Year Book which was interrupted by the Second World War. An important feature of the Bureau's annual conference has been the study of a selected educational theme. Since 1947 the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has shared in the activities of the IBE by being a co-sponsor of the annual conference.

The IBE maintains an extensive library containing material on science and several aspects of education such as child psychology, educational legislation and teacher training. In addition it has a well organized bibliographical service. Furthermore, it has organized a Permanent Exhibition of Public Instruction where the member governments advertise selected aspects of their educational systems for the benefit of other nations.

With the formation of UNESCO in 1945 education came to be considered as "a major function of an intergovernmental organization representing the majority of countries of the world."¹³ At the time of its inauguration in London on November 16, 1945, it was declared that

Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed; that ignorance of each other's ways and lives has been a common cause, throughout the history of mankind, of that suspicion and mistrust between the peoples of the world through which their differences

¹³ Ibid., p. 83.

have all too often broken into war¹⁴

Holding to this conviction UNESCO has engaged in numerous activities all aimed at promoting international understanding and peace. Its international operations have included education, the social and natural sciences, international cultural activities, mass communication and technical assistance to developing countries.

In the field of education the following are some of the activities in which UNESCO has engaged since its formation. Between 1945 and 1949 it met emergency needs in respect of postwar educational reconstruction in some of the devastated countries. These included Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Belgium, Holland, France, Norway, the United Kingdom, Denmark, China, Burma, Greece, Malaya, Indonesia, the Philippines and Indo China. UNESCO spearheaded a campaign to collect funds as well as supplies for these needy nations. It also published useful material to help teachers and encouraged the granting of fellowships to teachers for study abroad. Furthermore it assisted in recruiting qualified educational specialists to work in those countries with serious educational problems.

The collection of educational data throughout the world has been an important feature of UNESCO's activities. Despite the significant pioneering work done by the IBE in

¹⁴ Conference for the Establishment of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, (London: UNESCO, 1946), pp. 93-99. Cited in David G. Scanlon. op. cit., p. 83.

this area, huge gaps existed in knowledge about the educational systems of the world. Some of these gaps related to preschool, primary, secondary, adult and higher education as well as the distribution trends in school populations by age groups and the extent of literacy. Without accurate and up-to-date data in all these areas it would be difficult for UNESCO to carry out its numerous programs. Moreover some of the member nations of the United Nations Organization needed such data "in order to prepare sound plans for national education and to make intelligent requests for outside aid."¹⁵ The amount of educational data compiled by UNESCO since its formation in 1945 has been enormous.

The compilation of data and other information on higher education has similarly engaged the attention of UNESCO. The International Association of Universities, to which UNESCO has delegated most of its clearing-house responsibility, performs many functions in higher education. For instance, (1) it compiles materials on universities and other higher educational institutions throughout the world, (2) it produces useful international publications such as International List of Universities and (3) it operates a research service and endeavours to examine questions such as the equivalence of university qualifications in various countries.

¹⁵ Walter H.C. Laves and Charles Thomson, UNESCO: Purpose, Progress, Prospects, (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1957), p. 89.

The provision of information on the international exchange of people has been another important feature of UNESCO's work. Teachers, students and other persons find UNESCO's Study Abroad a useful international handbook providing information on fellowships, scholarships and other educational exchange activities. Its other similar publications include Teaching Abroad, Vacations Abroad and Travel Abroad, all containing useful information that is generally not available elsewhere. Since 1946 UNESCO has offered several hundreds of fellowships¹⁶ for projects including fundamental and primary education, library methods, workers' education and projects in the sciences. The fellowships have enabled people to live and study in foreign countries. In connection with the scheme UNESCO has published articles and booklets on host countries to provide the basic information needed by foreigners. Exchange projects for workers and youth organizations have also been arranged to enable people to visit their counterparts in other countries.

UNESCO has consistently encouraged the development of both the natural and social sciences in many countries. So far as the natural sciences are concerned, it has established science cooperation offices in areas which are far away from the main centres of science and technology. These centres

¹⁶ Between 1946 and 1956 more than 1,300 fellowships were awarded. See W.H.C. Laves and Charles Thomson, op. cit., p. 224.

include New Delhi, Cairo, Montevideo and Jakarta. The main function of these centres has been to channel scientific knowledge from the most advanced countries to less advanced areas, thus gradually bringing about scientific progress throughout the world.

Similarly in the social sciences UNESCO has made considerable efforts to promote the advancement of knowledge. In 1952 it arranged a meeting of the International Social Science Council consisting of specialists from several countries to consider the "advancement of the social sciences throughout the world and their application to the major problems of the present day."¹⁷ UNESCO has endeavoured to bring together social scientists from different countries through arranging international conferences. It has contributed substantially toward the development of the social sciences through the publication of useful information and professional aids such as bibliographies. It has made it possible for scholars to have access to materials formerly unobtainable by them. It is largely through the UNESCO Institute for Social Sciences in Cologne that many of these developments have been effected.

Other activities of UNESCO worth mentioning are (1) education in ex-enemy countries and (2) the comparative

¹⁷ UNESCO, "Final Report, First Plenary General Assembly of the International Social Science Council," Document UNESCO/SS/10, (1954), p. 10.

study of cultures. Soon after the Second World War two major problems which faced the western powers were "(1) the reconstruction of the educational systems of the war-devastated countries; and (2) the education of the defeated nations in the ways of democracy."¹⁸ UNESCO played a significant role in an attempt to solve these problems. In the ex-enemy countries (West Germany and Japan) UNESCO offices were set up to help re-educate the people according to democratic ideology. In 1951 UNESCO opened the Institute of Education in Hamburg with the objective of promoting international understanding and cooperation. Its activities have included: (1) research on the aims and methods of education, (2) revision of German textbooks to eliminate the element of excessive nationalism, and (3) the inclusion of human rights in the school curriculum.¹⁹ It has produced a large number of publications and has been the centre for international conferences on education.

The comparative study of cultures has been another aspect of UNESCO's activities aimed at promoting international understanding. The assumption is that traditionally people in a particular culture generally consider themselves superior to all others, thus building up a permanent prejudice which may eventually express itself in international conflict. The

¹⁸ Encyclopedia Americana, op. cit., p. 250.

¹⁹ W.H.C. Laves and Charles Thomson, op. cit., p. 238.

lack of understanding between the East and the West has led UNESCO to encourage the frank exchange of ideas between these two cultural blocks. An example of cultural studies is provided by the international conference on the theme "The Concept of Man and the Philosophy of Education in East and West", held in New Delhi in December 1951. From the West delegates came from France, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, the United Kingdom and the U.S.A., while the delegates from the East came from Turkey, Egypt, Japan, Ceylon and India. This conference endeavoured to bridge the gulf between the thinking in the East and West by recommending the holding of conferences of philosophers, artists, scientists and educators as well as the mutual revision of textbooks and the exchange of knowledge.²⁰ One important conclusion of the conference was that the conventional distinction between the "active West and contemplative East" was a fallacy and that in both religious and cultural ideas the two regions were basically similar. Since 1957 UNESCO has endeavoured to promote understanding between Eastern and Western cultures by arranging translations of important books into each other's languages, by the exchange of scholars and artists and by travelling exhibitions.

It may be useful to indicate briefly some concrete ways in which some of the developing countries have benefitted from the international motivation, with special reference to

²⁰ UNESCO, Humanism and Education in East and West, 1953, pp. 22-26. Cited in W.H.C. Laves and Charles Thomson, op. cit., p. 250.

UNESCO's activities. In May 1961 UNESCO convened an international educational conference in Addis Ababa, East Africa. At this Conference thirty-four African countries were represented. Also representatives of the following bodies were present: (1) the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa which was formed in 1958 to facilitate concerted action for the development of African states, (2) the British government, and (3) the French government. In addition there were observers from the United States. The objective of this conference was to assist African states to strengthen their educational organization within the framework of economic and social development. Toward this objective UNESCO played the role of educational coordinator between the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa on the one hand and the African States on the other. The report of the conference was published in 1961 and was concerned primarily with outlining a plan for African educational development for the period 1961-1980.²¹

In addition to acting as coordinator between the United Nations Economic Commission and the African States, UNESCO has given assistance in respect of educational planning. This assistance has taken the following forms: (1) the training of educational planners and administrators, (2) the improvement

²¹UNESCO, Conference on African States on the Development of Education in Africa: Final Report, (Addis Ababa: UNESCO, 1961).

of textbooks through UNESCO's Regional Education Center in Accra, Ghana, (3) the provision of teacher training institutions and secondary schools, and (4) advice and assistance with respect to school buildings, through the School Construction Bureau for Africa in Khartoum. Commenting on some of UNESCO's activities in Africa, Coyle observes:

With the help of the United Nations Special Fund, UNESCO has set up thirteen secondary schools and training colleges, which will soon be turning out more than 1,800 high school teachers a year²²

Furthermore in 1960 UNESCO created an Emergency Fund for Africa. The U.S.A. contributed one million dollars to this fund while member states provided smaller contributions. The fund is used for providing teaching materials as well as grants-in-aid for study.

Similarly in Asia, UNESCO has been giving assistance toward educational development. One major area in which assistance has been given is the extension of free and compulsory primary education throughout Asia. Laves and Thomson have indicated that in 1957 there was a total of 95 million children of school age out of which 55 million were not in school. They have argued that because the birth rate in Asia is high and the death rate, especially among children, is declining "the proportion between the child population

²² David Cushman Coyle, The United Nations and How It Works, Major Revised Edition, (New York: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1965), (Mentor Books), pp. 38-39.

(six to twelve years of age) and the adult population is almost twice that of a country like England.²³ This means that the predominantly agricultural economies of Asia, with far lower per capita incomes than Europe or North America, must bear a much heavier burden of full compulsory education.

Throughout Asia the demand for popular education has been growing rapidly but the resources of the countries have not been adequate for the rapid progress demanded. In 1960 UNESCO organized an international conference at Karachi to plan effectively the extension of primary education in Asia; another conference on the same subject was held in Tokyo in 1962. The basic proposal was to extend the duration of free and compulsory education throughout Asia to seven years or more by 1980 using national resources plus foreign aid. Toward the realization of this objective the Director General of the United Nations recommended that \$1,936,710 be allocated toward educational expansion as follows:²⁴

For conferences and planning	\$ 99,000
For the support of regional offices and centres	557,050
For the training of teachers	674,860
For vocational and similar programs	<u>605,800</u>
	<u>\$ 1,936,710</u>

²³ Walter H.C. Laves and Charles Thomson, op. cit., p. 169.

²⁴ George N. Shuster, UNESCO: Assessment and Promise, (New York: Harper and Row, 1963), pp. 49-50.

UNESCO has already set up a Regional Office for Education in Bangkok, a Regional Centre for School Building Research in Bandung, a Regional Training Centre in New Delhi and a Regional Centre for the Training of Teacher Educators in Manila.

Furthermore UNESCO has established an International Institute of Child Study at Bangkok. The establishment of this institution arose from the recognition of a problem connected with educational borrowing -- namely, that an educational system is closely identified with a country's cultural institutions, values, traditions and goals, so that the transplantation of some of its elements into another system having a different cultural background, might prove to be unworkable. Moreover since the personality development of children differs from country to country, it is necessary to adapt educational methods in different countries, if the methods are to be effective. It was for these reasons UNESCO initiated the research program in child psychology at Bangkok in 1955. Parallel studies in child psychology were initiated in the universities of the Saar and of Toronto. After sufficient data had been compiled at the two institutions, they would be compared with the findings made at Bangkok "in an effort to test whether universal factors can be identified with regard to child development and education."²⁵

²⁵ W.H.C. Laves and Charles Thomson, op. cit., p. 178.

In addition to UNESCO, other bodies have been participating in international education. National governments as well as universities, private organizations and individuals have made significant contributions in this field. For instance, since the end of the nineteenth century the Government of France has promoted the spread of French culture in Asia, Africa and the Middle East, mainly through the building of schools, aid to French missionary activities and running of hospitals. To ensure the success of its cultural relations activities, an overseas cultural relations program was established in the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs, with responsibility for the organization of educational institutions, libraries, sports, travel and other cultural activities.

The role of the United States federal government in international education programs has been important. Scanlon has remarked that "Today there is hardly a department of the United States government that is not involved in some form of international education."²⁶ The United States government has given foreign aid through the Agency for International Development (AID). In 1966 the agency made available some \$21.3 million toward the development of African education. This amount represented almost thirty per cent of United States' world wide educational programs. It has been mainly

²⁶ See U.S. Congress House, Government Programs in International Education, 85th Congress, Second Session, H.R. No. 2712, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1959, for a complete survey of official U.S. activities in international education.

through United States universities that AID support for African education has been channelled. It has also been partly channelled through the Peace Corps and the Department of State's educational and cultural exchange program. No less important have been the contributions of universities and private organizations. For instance in 1923 the International Institute of Teachers College was founded at Columbia University, New York. Its objectives were as follows:

(1) to provide help to foreign students at the University, (2) to carry out research into educational matters in foreign countries, and (3) to make available the results of its researches to students of education all over the world.²⁷

Also important has been the contribution of private organizations and individual philanthropists. The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace established in New York in 1910 to promote international peace, endeavours to achieve its objective through research, publications, conferences, the distribution of books and lectures on international law. The Ford Foundation has made funds available for developmental projects in Asiatic countries including India, Pakistan, Burma, Turkey as well as some countries in Africa

²⁷ For further information on the contribution of universities to international education see The International Programs of American Universities: An Inventory and Analysis, East Lansing, Institute on Overseas Programs, Michigan State University, 1958.

and the Near East.²⁸

The Institute of International Education in New York, a private non-profit agency, was established in 1919 with the aim of enabling Americans to have a better understanding of foreign countries and conversely to enable foreigners to have an accurate knowledge of the U.S.A., its peoples, culture and institutions. It has been a clearing house for information on several aspects of international education and also handled various exchange programs for universities, corporations, government agencies and foundations in both the United States and foreign countries.

One of the main problems facing the counselling division of the Institute has been the lack of an adequate glossary of terminology. It has received numerous requests for information requiring international comparisons in education. For instance, "What is the equivalent in other countries of the German Abitur or the French doctorat or the Certificat d'études supérieures awarded in the Congo?" The absence of an international glossary of educational terminology has made this aspect of the Institute's work difficult. Nevertheless efforts have been made to meet this challenge as well as requests for various types of information. Commenting on the varied nature of the Institute's work Lily Von Klemperer has made the following statement:

²⁸Encyclopaedia Britannica, Volume 9, Encyclopaedia Britannica Inc., 1969, pp. 655-656.

Organizational, institutional, and subject matter card indices and files, United States and foreign university catalogues, national and global reference works, textbooks and pamphlets on national, international and comparative education, represent essential working instruments needed by IIE staff in counselling students and placing foreign students and specialists and planning study programmes abroad for American students.²⁹

It may be noted that comparative education literature is among the instruments used by the Institute in its operations. It is estimated that every year over 4,500 persons (including teachers, students, specialists and technicians) benefit from the Institute's programs and study in countries other than their own.³⁰

An example of private individual effort in the field of international education may now be given. The Phelps-Stokes Fund of New York was a trust established through the will of Caroline Phelps Stokes, an American female philanthropist who directed that the fund be used "for educational purposes in the education of Negroes both in Africa and the United States."³¹ In 1919 the Fund appointed an international commission on education to tour African countries lying south of the Sahara, in order "to study the educational needs of

²⁹ Lily Von Klemperer, "The Institute of International Education," Comparative Education, Vol. 3, No. 1 (November, 1966), p. 50.

³⁰ The Encyclopedia Americana, op. cit., p. 173.

³¹ Thomas Jesse Jones, Education in Africa, (New York: Phelps-Stokes Fund, 1922), p. xii.

Africa, especially those pertaining to the hygienic, economic, social and religious conditions of the Native people."³² The Commission led by Thomas Jesse Jones, the educational director of the Fund, toured the following African countries: Sierra Leone, Liberia, Gold Coast (now Ghana), Nigeria, Cameroons, Belgian Congo, Angola and South Africa. Its report, Education in Africa³³ provided useful information to European and American governments as well as the missionary societies then operating in Africa.

The numerous operations of national and international agencies as well as private organizations and individuals in the field of international education have not been without their effect on comparative education. The operations have resulted in a great number of publications some of which contain useful data for comparative education. Some of the publications are briefly examined in the following section.

Since 1952 UNESCO has produced handbooks providing detailed information on the educational systems of the world. In 1952 it published the World Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics following investigations by questionnaires sent to the member states of UNESCO. The handbook contained descriptive and statistical information on fifty-seven countries. The General Conference of UNESCO held in Paris in November 1952 passed a resolution instructing the

³² Ibid., p. xvi.

³³ Ibid.

Director-General

To undertake, in collaboration with the appropriate national and international bodies, comparative studies of a general or specialized nature, having an essential bearing on questions included in the education programme of UNESCO or submitted to UNESCO by the United Nations.³⁴

Acting upon this resolution the scope of the publication was expanded through collaboration with both national and international bodies, thus eventually bringing out the 1955 edition of World Survey of Education. This publication was the result of cooperative effort on the member states of UNESCO, National Commissions, ministries of education and ministries of foreign affairs. Chapter One is entitled "World Survey of Education" and includes general information on world literacy, the structure of school systems and educational finance. Chapter Two deals with the comparative description of educational systems, while Chapter Three deals with the statistical reporting of educational systems. In all two hundred educational systems in the world are described, with comprehensive statistical data being provided in most cases. Also as a step toward facilitating international comparison of educational systems, the volume contains a glossary of educational terms commonly used in different countries.

³⁴ World Survey of Education: Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics, (Paris: UNESCO, 1955), preface.

To provide much more detailed information on the educational systems of the world, UNESCO has followed up with a series of handbooks on primary, secondary and higher education. World Survey of Education, II, Primary Education³⁵ gives an account of educational developments throughout the world during the period 1950-1954 and also describes, country by country, the progress of primary education in two hundred countries. The treatment of each country's educational system follows the following pattern: (1) history, (2) policy and administration, (3) organization, and (4) problems and trends. Statistical data are included. Similarly World Survey of Education, III, Secondary Education³⁶ provides statistical data as well as descriptions of secondary education in different countries. The last publication in the series is World Survey of Education, IV, Higher Education³⁷ which examines (1) the progress of higher education since 1930, (2) the changing pattern of higher education, and (3) intellectual and human aspects of higher education. It also gives descriptions of higher education in different countries and is illustrated with diagrams showing the educational ladder in most of the systems.

³⁵ World Survey of Education, II, Primary Education, (Paris: UNESCO, 1958).

³⁶ World Survey of Education, III, Secondary Education, (Paris: UNESCO, 1961).

³⁷ World Survey of Education, IV, Higher Education, (Paris: UNESCO, 1966).

The studies in the World Survey of Education series may be referred to as national area studies, as distinct from cross-cultural studies and case studies. (National area studies deal with single nations or countries whereas cross-cultural studies are truly comparative and involve, at least, two national systems of education. Case studies deal with selected problems in a particular country.) Like UNESCO, the IBE publishes national area studies in its series International Yearbook of Education. This publication is an important source of recent information and is based on reports and statistics supplied by representatives of Ministries of Education in the member countries.

In the area of cross-cultural studies some publications of international agencies have been valuable sources of information for comparative educators. For instance, UNESCO's series, "Educational Studies and Documents", include many titles such as The Organization of the School Year: A Comparative Study,³⁸ which could be useful for comparative education courses. The Institute of Education in Hamburg publishes similarly useful material. Based on its international conferences and seminars it has produced a number of publications such as Relevant Data in Comparative Education;³⁹

³⁸ UNESCO, The Organization of the School Year, Educational Studies and Documents, No. 43.

³⁹ B. Holmes and S.B. Robinson, Relevant Data in Comparative Education, (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963).

it also publishes the International Review of Education which carries a number of articles on comparative education.⁴⁰

Both cross-cultural and national area studies have been carried out by university institutions since the 1920's. These institutions include (1) Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, (2) the University of London Institute of Education, (3) the International Education Institute in Frankfurt, Germany, (4) the Comparative Education Center at the University of Chicago, (5) the Department of Education at Michigan University, and (6) the Department of Education at the University of Pittsburgh. Between 1924 and 1944 the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, published the Educational Yearbook under the editorship of I.L. Kandel who was professor of education in Teachers College. The information in the Educational Yearbook, though largely of historical interest, was organized around themes or levels of education. For instance, the 1932 issue was based on 'the church and state relations' theme while the 1934 issue was based on 'political philosophies in school systems'.

The Year Book of Education was founded in London in 1932 by one Sir Robert Evans. Its publication began that year under the chief editorship of Lord Eustace Percy, a

⁴⁰ For instance, L.R. Fernig, "Global Approach to Comparative Education," International Review of Education, Vol. 5, No. 3, (1959), pp. 87-99.

former president of England's Board of Education. In the introduction of the 1932 issue Percy stated that the purpose was to make a thorough study of educational systems in the British Empire as well as other countries. In this connection it was necessary "to take a wide survey of those systems as they exist and to examine their historical growth"⁴¹ because only after this had been done could "the student compare them noting their differences and their similarities...."⁴² The publication appeared annually from 1932 to 1940 and contained articles on educational matters in Great Britain, the countries of the British Empire and other countries including the U.S.A. and Soviet Russia. Beginning from 1935 it was published in association with The University of London Institute of Education.⁴³ The Second World War interrupted publication of the series. With the resumption of publication in 1948, however, the examination of educational problems became the main focus of the series. This change of policy was considered proper in view of the fact that descriptive information about educational systems was being effectively compiled by international agencies such as UNESCO and IBE.

⁴¹ Lord Eustace Percy M.P. (editor-in-chief), The Year Book of Education 1932, (London: Evans Brothers Limited, 1932), p. xiv.

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ The joint editorial board for the 1935 issue comprised the following: (1) Lord Eustace Percy M.P., (2) Sir Percy Nunn, director of the University of London Institute of Education and (3) Dover Wilson, professor of education, University of London, Kings College.

Therefore the social, economic and political problems related to education in various countries were examined in the postwar volumes of The Year Book of Education.

The year 1948 was the centenary of the death of Jullien of Paris; therefore the 1949 issue paid tribute to him as being the "Father of Comparative Education" and stated:

In his L'Esquisse et vues preliminaires d'un ouvrage sur l'Education comparee, published in 1817, Jullien quite clearly formulated the purposes and methods of the comparative study of educational problems. He was the first to suggest the establishment of an international Bureau of Education and his views found their realization in the Bureau of Geneva and in UNESCO. The Year Book of Education is one of the many sources for comparative study, and the Editorial Board joins Paris and Geneva in paying tribute to Marc Antoine Jullien.⁴⁴

The publication of the series continued till 1953 when it was placed under the joint editorial responsibility of The University of London Institute of Education and Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. The joint editors for the 1953 issue comprised (1) Robert King Hall, professor of education at Columbia University, (2) Nicholas Hans and (3) J. A. Lauwers, both of the University of London Institute of Education. In 1965 the title of the publication was changed to The World Year Book of Education but the policy of basing each volume on a particular theme or problem was continued. The theme of the 1965 issue was "The Education

⁴⁴ The Year Book of Education 1949, note on p. v.

Explosion" while the 1969 issue focused on "Examinations".

Case studies in comparative education have featured in the work of international and regional organizations, university institutions and individual scholars. For instance, there is a UNESCO case study on polytechnical education in the U.S.S.R. edited by Shapovalenko.⁴⁵ There are also many UNESCO case studies on compulsory education. This series includes a study on school leaving age,⁴⁶ and studies on compulsory education in France, Australia, Iraq, England, Ecuador, the Philippines, New Zealand, Thailand and India.⁴⁷ Written by competent scholars, each study in the series gives the historical and cultural background to the problem and indicates the present position. Each examines in detail the factors bearing on compulsory education and draws up conclusions.

Although activities in international education have resulted in a flood of statistics much used in comparative education, the use of statistics has not been without its problems. The statistics have not always been reliable and UNESCO, for instance, has been well aware of this fact. Statistics within the same field obtained from different sources in the same country might show wide divergences.

⁴⁵ S.G. Shapovalenko (ed.), Polytechnical Education in the U.S.S.R., UNESCO Monographs on Education, (Paris: UNESCO, 1963).

⁴⁶ I.L. Kandel, Raising the School-Leaving Age, (Paris: UNESCO, 1951).

⁴⁷ K.G. Saiyidain et al., Compulsory Education in India, (Paris: UNESCO, 1952).

Whenever this happened UNESCO's standard practice was to make certain adjustments. However, where such adjustments were impossible, for instance, when totals disagreed, "the figure reported by the source closest to the operation of the education programme has usually been taken."⁴⁸ However the reliability of statistical data can still be questioned. It is quite possible for data to be deliberately inflated or deflated in order to promote national propaganda interests. Now, assuming that the statistical data on a given country were even reliable, they could be incomparable with data on other countries owing to international differences of classification. Furthermore, assuming that categories could be reconciled "there still remains the problem of the widely differing methods of collection and collation of material."⁴⁹ For example, school enrolment figures reported by various countries might refer to any of the following: (1) gross enrolment, which includes transfers and leavers from the schools, (2) net enrolment, which excludes the transfers and leavers, (3) average weekly, quarterly or yearly enrolment or (4) census enrolment taken in all schools on a fixed day. Assuming also that the statistical data were fairly accurate and comparable, it has been remarked that:

⁴⁸ World Survey of Education: Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics, (Paris: UNESCO, 1955), p. 53.

⁴⁹ Ibid., p. 53.

... the unwillingness to probe deeply into areas where national sensitivity is high, such as the relationship of social class, race, political ideology, and religious affiliation to educational opportunities, often seriously weakens their significance.⁵⁰

An important step toward the standardization of international statistics is the establishment of exact definitions of terms used in establishing statistical categories. UNESCO has made an effort in this direction by preparing a glossary of educational terms as an appendix to its World Survey of Education.⁵¹ The glossary includes terms used in preprimary, primary, secondary, vocational and teacher education in various parts of the world.

Despite the stated problems, statistical data have been useful to comparative education. The data collected by international agencies such as UNESCO and IBE have provided material for national area studies as well as cross-cultural and case studies.

In the field of private enterprise, an important work in international education which may be cited as having relevance for comparative education is Education in Africa.⁵² This report of the Phelps-Stokes Commission to Africa published in 1922 covered the following countries of

⁵⁰ Harold J. Noah and Max A. Eckstein, op. cit., p. 37.

⁵¹ World Survey of Education, Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics, (Paris: UNESCO, 1955), pp. 897-925.

⁵² Thomas Jesse Jones, op. cit.

sub-Saharan Africa: Sierra Leone, The Gold Coast (now Ghana), Nigeria, British South Africa, Angola, Belgian Congo and Liberia. The first part of the report dealt with the general background of education in Africa. The second part gave a detailed description of the educational systems of the seven countries, each account ending with a number of recommendations for the improvement of the educational system. A major observation made by the Commission was that education must be adapted to African needs and conditions. The report stated:

The wholesale transfer of the educational conventions of Europe and America to the peoples of Africa has certainly not been an act of wisdom, however justly it may be defended as a proof of genuine interest in the Native people The too frequent charges of the failure of Native education are traceable in part to the lack of educational adaptation to Native life.⁵³

Accordingly the Commission made a number of recommendations suggesting ways by which education was to be adapted to suit African conditions. These recommendations included the areas of health, the use of the environment, preparation for home life, the use of leisure time, languages of instruction, curriculum, character development and community life. The report emphasized that education must be based on the practical skills and knowledge needed by Africans in their daily lives.

⁵³ Ibid., p. 16.

It may be observed also that the work of some twentieth century comparative educators reflects a strong international viewpoint. These educators include Isaac Kandel (1881-1965) and Paul Monroe (1869-1947). In his earlier work, Essays in Comparative Education⁵⁴ Kandel devoted a chapter to a discussion of international understanding and indicated the role of the school in helping to promote this. He defined international understanding as follows:

... it is that attitude which recognizes the possibilities of service of our own nation and of other nations in a common cause, the cause of humanity, the readiness to realize that other nations along with our own have by virtue of their common humanity the ability to contribute something of worth to the progress of civilization.⁵⁵

To Kandel an international attitude did not necessarily involve a repudiation of patriotism or nationalism. Rather he considered the basis of internationalism to be the recognition of the part played by all countries, including one's own, in the general progress of the world irrespective of their cultural differences.

He advocated the inculcation of the international attitude in high school students. In this connection he believed that there was no subject in the high school curriculum which could not contribute some knowledge of facts

⁵⁴ I.L. Kandel, Essays in Comparative Education, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

⁵⁵ Ibid., p. 228.

bearing on international relations. He indicated the following as fruitful areas to be exploited by the school in its endeavour to develop international understanding among its students: (1) sports, (2) folk dances, music and art, (3) literature, (4) science, (5) geography and (6) history. Commenting on these aspects of the curriculum Kandel observed that music and art, for instance, recognized no national boundaries since their pleasures are enjoyed by the whole of humanity; therefore through them the school could inculcate the attitude of international understanding.

Kandel emphasized this theme once again in his later work, The New Era in Education.⁵⁶ Here he argued that in addition to cultural forces which influenced educational systems another important force was internationalism. He observed that a people's culture expressed itself in nationalism which tended to emphasize national interest and superiority and also to develop prejudices against other nations. This he deplored and added that practically every modern state had profited from conscious or unconscious borrowings from cultural contributions from various countries. He emphasized the interdependence of nations and the need for international understanding. According to Kandel the following were some of the ways in which internationalism could affect education:

⁵⁶ I.L. Kandel, The New Era in Education, (Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955).

... revision of the content of history and geography courses, increased attention to the study of foreign languages, and the development of interest in the culture of nations hitherto ignored.⁵⁷

Internationalism was an important aspect of Kandel's theory of comparative education. He held the view that national ends and values shaped educational systems and that the systems epitomized the social and political ideals of the nation. To him, nationalism properly conceived was the expression of a people's culture. He held that the study of comparative education should be the study of nationalism, as it furnished the basis of educational systems. If this was properly done, he believed that it would lead to the development of internationalism

... arising from an appreciative understanding of other nations as well as our own from the sense that all nations through their systems of education are contributing to the work and progress of the world⁵⁸

This chapter has dealt, at some length, with various developments in international education and its relevance for comparative education. The numerous cultural and educational relations between nations as well as the international approach to educational matters have produced a vast amount of publications some of which have provided material for comparative education. National and international

⁵⁷ Ibid., p. 62.

⁵⁸ I.L. Kandel, Comparative Education, (New York & Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933), pp. xxv-xxvi.

organizations as well as universities and private organizations have all made their contributions to the cause of international education. Of the international organizations, UNESCO has probably contributed most to the development of comparative education; it appears as if this trend may continue. The international perspective has become marked during this century and some comparative educators have adopted this perspective in their studies of educational problems. From the viewpoint of comparative education there have been a number of difficulties militating against international comparisons. These difficulties include the questionable reliability of statistics, the incomparability of data arising from differences in meaning of educational terms and the absence of objective criteria uniformly applicable to all countries of the world.

CHAPTER VI

THE STAGE OF INITIAL ATTEMPTS AT INTERPRETATION

Up to about the end of the nineteenth century the study of comparative education had been primarily concerned with descriptions of educational institutions and practices. The accounts by comparative educators had been reportorial and had been written largely from the perspective of education itself. Educational systems had been studied without much reference to their social contexts. Practically no attempt had been made to interpret educational phenomena or to explain why different systems came to be what they were or functioned as they did.

With the turn of the century the study of comparative education began to emphasize interpretation or explanation. Some educators started looking upon mere compilation of facts without interpretation as being without any great value. Accordingly the earlier stage of mere reporting now gave way to a new stage where attempts were made to investigate the forces shaping educational systems. It was now held that there was an interrelationship between education and social factors. Those who first took this line of approach were scholars who were involved in the historical-philosophical foundations of education and included Sadler, Kandell, Sandiford, Ulich, Hans and Mallinson. Their studies were based largely on history, tradition, culture and national

character.

It was primarily the result of a study by Michael Sadler (1861-1943) in 1900 that comparative education came to focus sharply on the interaction between education and society. In his study "How Far Can We Learn Anything of Practical Value from the Study of Foreign Systems of Education"¹ Sadler made it clear that education was not just concerned with knowledge or schools; rather it was a very complex concept and was nothing less than an aspect of life itself. Therefore he observed that in order to study foreign educational systems one must not stick to the schools, but

... must also go outside into the streets and into the homes of the people, and try to find out what is the intangible, impalpable, spiritual force which, in the case of any successful system of Education is in reality upholding the school system and accounting for its practical efficiency.²

This general premise was illustrated by Sadler who referred to the educational systems of Germany, Wales and the U.S.A. For instance, in order to understand the German educational system he stated that one had to consider the influence of compulsory military service because a German boy who completed the course in a recognized secondary school had his period of compulsory service reduced by a year and

¹George Z.F. Bereday, "Sir Michael Sadler's 'Study of Foreign Systems of Education,'" Comparative Education Review, (February, 1964), pp. 307-314.

²Ibid., p. 309.

moreover, served his period at a much higher social level than if he entered as an ordinary private. In the case of the U.S.A., on the other hand, an understanding of the educational system required a grasp of the interplay of two factors, namely,

... the inherited Puritan zeal for education and an earnest conviction that by means of schools alone can they stir up together all those alien elements which are going to the making of the American nation and convert them ... into one people.³

Therefore Sadler had a certain amount of sociological insight into education. He was perfectly convinced that social factors shaped educational systems because "the things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside the schools and govern and interpret the things inside."⁴ Moreover he stated that a national system of education was a living thing which contained some of the "secret workings of national life" and therefore "... reflects, while it seeks to remedy, the failings of the national character."⁵ According to him a national system of education often emphasized those aspects of training which the national character particularly needed. He also held the view that the comparative study of educational systems, if undertaken with seriousness and in a sympathetic spirit, could better enable scholars to understand their own educational systems

³ Ibid.

⁴ Ibid., p. 310.

⁵ Ibid.

and equip them better to sense any impending dangers.

Sadler was the director of the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports in the Education Department, London, England from 1895 to 1903. In his capacity as director he shaped the Office along the lines of the United States Bureau of Education, which he closely studied. He used historical and comparative perspectives in writing his Special Reports. Several European authorities were consulted in the preparation of these reports which examined educational matters in relation to social and historical factors. The object of the reports was to help direct the making of educational policy in Great Britain through the study of the historical and social aspects of foreign educational systems. Under his directorship eleven volumes of reports⁶ were published and covered several educational practices and problems in Europe, U.S.A. and the then British Empire. When he was queried by his administrative superiors about some of his proposed inquiries, Sadler wrote a long memorandum in which he stated his convictions as regards the purpose and character of this work. He stated:

The chief work of an educational intelligence office ... is to collect, summarize, and publish various kinds of educational experience, with a view to (1) getting what is sound and true from a number of discrepant opinions; (2) informing the nation how it stands in regard

⁶Board of Education, England, Special Reports on Educational Subjects (1895-1903), (London: Wyman & Sons).

to educational efficiency as compared with other nations and (3) promoting ... general consent and agreement as to the wisest and most fruitful line of development in national education.⁷

In the above quotation Sadler gave reasons for his extensive researches into foreign educational systems. His fundamental contribution to comparative education lay in his thesis that an educational system must be studied in the context of the society in which it had developed. In one of his Special Reports he stated: "All good and true education is an expression of national life and character. It is rooted in the history of the nation and fitted to its needs."⁸ Therefore the idea of historical development and national character was basic to Sadler's interpretation of educational data. In accordance with his premise concerning the social context of educational systems, he made a number of recommendations to the effect that English teachers in training as well as educators be sent abroad to "try in a systematic way to see something of the actual working and inner life of some foreign system of education"⁹

⁷ Cited by J.H. Higginson, "The Centenary of an English Pioneer in Comparative Education: Sir Michael Sadler (1861-1943)," International Review of Education, Vol. 7, (1961/62), p. 289.

⁸ Michael E. Sadler, "The Unrest in Secondary Education in Germany and Elsewhere," in Board of Education, Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vol. 9, (London: H.M.S.O. 1902), p. 56. Cited by H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, (London and Toronto: The Macmillan Co.), 1969, p. 46.

⁹ G.Z.F. Bereday, op. cit., p. 311.

Higginson has observed that Sadler left an uncompleted manuscript entitled "Comments on the History of Education in England"¹⁰ in which he based his argument on the social forces at work in shaping English education. The uncompleted work contained several references to the development of education in Germany, France and the U.S.A., and drew much on historical factors, tradition and culture. I.L. Kandel acknowledged his debt to Sadler and paid tribute to him in the following words:

His (Sadler's) great opportunity came when he was placed in charge of the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports in the Education Department and was able to prove that research in education can be as broad, comprehensive and enriching as any other study of man's activities the results of his research were models of perfected style and showed, as few others have been able to show, how many factors must be drawn in to explain the real and inner meanings of a system of education.¹¹

The work of I.L. Kandel (1881-1965) followed the course charted out by Sadler and bore a strong imprint of it. Kandel's comparative education studies were based on history and the social forces which shaped education in different countries. In his early work Comparative Education¹² he observed that hitherto the study of foreign educational

¹⁰ J.H. Higginson, op. cit., p. 287.

¹¹ Ibid., p. 296.

¹² I.L. Kandel, Comparative Education, (New York & Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933).

systems had been concerned primarily with descriptive accounts of school administration, organization and practices in various countries; moreover such accounts had been written mainly from the perspective of education "without any reasoned analysis of what the systems stand for or represent in relation to their national backgrounds, progress, and development."¹³ He considered such an approach to be without much value and argued that it was necessary to discover the real meaning of education in various societal contexts. His theory was that many problems¹⁴ of education were common to all countries; therefore an important function of comparative education was to analyze these problems to discover their causes, to note the differences between the various systems and the reasons for them and to study the various solutions attempted.

In order to discover the real meaning of an educational system Kandel argued that it was necessary to study the forces that determined its character. In line with Sadler's position, Kandel stated that "an educational system is largely influenced and its character determined by factors and forces outside the school."¹⁵ The factors and forces included

¹³ Ibid., pp. xvii-xviii.

¹⁴ See Ibid., pp. xviii-xix for sample problems.

¹⁵ I.L. Kandel, The New Era in Education: A Comparative Study, (Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1955), p. 14.

political ideology, historical background, patterns of family life, technology, religion and nationalism. Kandel therefore called for the analysis of a nation's history and cultural backgrounds in order to arrive at the real meaning of educational systems. To him it was most important to understand the meaning of nationalism as it influenced education, for he considered nationalism to be the real basis of education. In Comparative Education (published in 1933) he argued that education must exist for certain purposes and that educational systems were dominated by national ends. Nationalism, properly conceived, was the expression of a people's life and therefore comparative education would be meaningless "unless it sought to discover the meaning of nationalism as it furnishes the basis of educational systems."¹⁶

It was Kandel's conviction that the comparison of educational systems which searched for "the hidden meaning of things found in the schools"¹⁷ could be of value as

... a contribution to the clarification of thought, to the better development of education as a science, and to the formulation of a comprehensive, all-embracing philosophy of education thoroughly rooted in the culture, ideals, and aspirations which each nation should seek to add to the store of human welfare.¹⁸

¹⁶ I.L. Kandel, Comparative Education, op. cit., p. xxiv.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. xxv.

¹⁸ Ibid., pp. xxv-xxvi.

Furthermore he held that comparative education should lead to the development of internationalism:

... arising from an appreciative understanding of other nations as well as our own, from the sense that all nations through their systems of education are contributing to the work and progress of the world....¹⁹

These tenets of Kandel's comparative education theory were expressed in his articles as well as books, notably Essays in Comparative Education (1930), Comparative Education (1933), and The New Era in Education (1955). They also found expression in the Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, which Kandel edited from 1924 to 1944. His classic work Comparative Education was published in 1933 when educators throughout the world were deeply concerned about education because of the possible effects of the world depression, rising nationalism and the emergence of modern dictatorships. In this study he provided an introduction which outlined his theory of comparative education. This was followed by two chapters characteristically entitled (1) "Education and Nationalism" in which he explained the significance of nationalism and its relevance for education and (2) "Education and National Character" in which he examined national character in England, France, Germany, Italy, Russia and U.S.A. Comparing the Englishman and Frenchman, for instance, he observed:

¹⁹ Ibid.

If the Englishman is a man of action whose progress is marked by empiricism rather than by theory, the Frenchman is a man of ideas who enjoys to think for the sheer pleasure of thinking and generally without much concern for the outcome of thinking in action. Orderliness, logic, planning, which appear to be absent as the characteristics of English life and organization, are by contrast the outstanding features of the French²⁰

The rest of the book is a detailed account of the educational systems of six selected countries, based upon the theoretical principles already outlined and treated from the historical perspective to show that antecedent factors had contributed to the shaping of the various systems.

In Essays in Comparative Education Kandel examined a number of topics in education such as "The State and Education in Europe", "The American Spirit in Education" and "Nationalism and Education in Italy". In treatment he used the 'national character analysis' as well as the historical perspective. In a similar manner The New Era in Education examined selected problems in education in the light of the social forces which determined the character of education. For the purpose of illustration he made references to England, France, U.S.S.R. and U.S.A.

The idea of national character and nationalism was basic to Kandel's interpretation of educational phenomena. The theme kept recurring in his writings. In Comparative Education he stated:

²⁰ Ibid., p. 29.

It is no accident or no mere coincidence that the pragmatic philosophy of education is peculiarly American and that American education is founded on the idea of progress and the cult of reason. It is important, therefore, as a means of appreciating and understanding the significance of a national system of education to consider the bearing of a nation's character upon its education.²¹

One of Kandel's great contributions to comparative education lay in his editorship of the Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Between 1924 and 1944 Kandel edited this periodical which examined selected educational problems and also provided accounts of educational developments in various countries. Some of the themes examined in the Yearbook were as follows: (1) The philosophy underlying the national systems of education (1929), (2) church and state in education (1932), (3) teachers associations (1935), (4) liberal education (1939) and (5) higher education in English-speaking countries (1943). The influence of Kandel's theory was shown in this series of publications which generally used the historical perspective and emphasized the social forces shaping education.

Kandel was particularly well equipped for his editorial responsibility of the Yearbook because of his masterly proficiency in several foreign languages which enabled him not only to understand fully educational problems in various

²¹ Ibid., p. 24.

countries but also to translate articles from contributors.

Brickman has observed that:

(Kandel) translated contributors' articles from the German, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch and Norwegian and he was linguistically prepared to translate from at least four more tongues. Further, he not only provided a pertinent introduction to each yearbook, but he also wrote special articles from time to time²²

His linguistic competence fitted him well as a comparative educator. His approach was largely philosophical-historical and he actually considered comparative education to be a subdivision of the history of education. He once defined comparative education as "the prolongation of the history of education into the present."²³ He also regarded comparative education as "a branch of politics."²⁴ His major preoccupation was to interpret education through an examination of cultural forces moulding societies and also through the philosophical and historical perspectives. Although he did not analyse the forces in detail, he gave useful guidance to future scholars by emphasizing the necessity for the analysis of forces or determining factors.

²² W.W. Brickman, "I.L. Kandel - International Scholar and Educator," Educational Forum, Vol. XV, (May 1951), p. 399.

²³ I.L. Kandel, "National Backgrounds of Education," Twenty Fifth Yearbook, National Society of College Teachers of Education, University of Chicago Press, 1937, p. 163. Cited by W.W. Brickman, "The Theoretical Foundations of Comparative Education," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 30, 1956-57, pp. 116-117.

²⁴ I.L. Kandel, Comparative Education, op. cit., p. xxv.

Kandel's work has not been without its critics. In considering some of the problems of comparative education Brickman has drawn attention to the fact that Kandel failed "in showing how the process of comparison can be achieved"²⁵ and that this probably accounted partly for the neglect of comparative education as a subject of study. This observation is true because some years had to elapse before any serious attempts were made to show how the process of comparison could be achieved.

In his criticism of Kandel's theory, Templeton has remarked that it was unrealistic and impracticable. The approach required a detailed analysis of the historical traditions, and the social, economic and political forces which had shaped the development of nations. Moreover it required an insight into the meaning of nationalism as Kandel indicated. In Templeton's view Kandel's thesis was fraught with serious problems. On the one hand since comparative education, by its very nature, was interdisciplinary and synthetic, he questioned whether the student could thoroughly master the various disciplines in order to be able to penetrate deeply into educational problems. Since very few people could claim to be proficient in many disciplines Templeton feared that the study of comparative education could be superficial. On the other hand if the student specialized in only one field there was the problem of the

²⁵ W.W. Brickman, op. cit., p. 401.

"narrowness of aim and execution which are the very antithesis of the spirit and scope of all genuinely comparative studies."²⁶ Thus two problems were apparent in Kandel's theory, namely, "the narrowness of aim and scope" and "the pitfalls of superficiality, vague generality and false synthesis."²⁷ In Templeton's view the Kandelian conception of comparative education was unrealistic. He suggested that the ends and scope of comparative education should be redefined within more realistic and manageable limits. Without a realistic formulation of the aims, scope, values and methods Templeton believed that the study of comparative education ran the risk of becoming

... either so narrowly descriptive or so superficial and aimless in scope that its great promise for making a contribution to 'a practical study of philosophy and principles of education' may remain unrealized.²⁸

These criticisms by Templeton and Brickman are valid. Nevertheless it cannot be denied that Kandel's contribution to comparative education was a significant one. Like Sadler, Kandel well understood the dynamic relationship between education and society, but went further to provide a more sophisticated interpretation. The social forces he constantly emphasized were certainly significant as explanatory variables,

²⁶ Robert G. Templeton, "Some Reflections on the Theory of Comparative Education," Comparative Education Review, (October, 1958), p. 29.

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 31.

although he neither determined their relative importance nor had he any criterion for including some forces in his analysis and excluding others.²⁹ Despite its pitfalls the work of Kandel provided direction for the study of comparative education between the 1920's and 1950's. He has been described as

Father of Comparative Education for his stress on the need to collect accurate data, his emphasis on the cultural-historical context in which an educational system develops and his insistence on the importance of explanation.³⁰

Kandel's followers included Peter Sandiford, Nicholas Hans, Robert Ulich, Vernon Mallinson and Arthur Henry Moehlman who all used the historical approach and interpreted educational systems in the light of relevant social forces which had shaped them.

Peter Sandiford (1882-1941) was a Canadian by nationality and studied at Columbia University, New York where he graduated M.A. in 1909 and Ph. D. in 1910. He subsequently became professor of educational psychology at the Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, from 1919 till his death in 1941 and was director of the College's department of educational research from its establishment in 1931.³¹

²⁹ H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, (London & Toronto: The Macmillan Co., 1969), p. 51.

³⁰ Ibid., pp. 51-52.

³¹ Encyclopedia Canadiana, Vol. 9, (Toronto, Ottawa, Montreal: Grolier of Canada Ltd., 1968), p. 201.

In the introduction to Comparative Education³² which he edited and to which he contributed, Sandiford made the point that an educational system was not merely an organization for imparting knowledge to the younger generation, but was the expression of "the innermost beliefs, ideals and aspirations of a people."³³ He therefore argued that in the comparative study of educational systems one must try

... to analyse and understand the fundamental philosophies of which these systems are the expression and to discover the underlying aims and hopes if we desire to reach an explanation of their several plans of organization.³⁴

Peter Sandiford held that educational systems were fashioned by historical, geographical, ethnological, political and economic factors. Much more important than these, however, he stated that it was the fundamental philosophy of the state and society which determined the character of its educational system.

Against this background the educational systems of six countries were examined in terms of the relevant social, economic and political antecedents as well as the fundamental philosophies concerned. Sandiford gave the following criteria for selecting the six countries:

³² Peter Sandiford (ed.), Comparative Education, (London & Toronto: J.M. Dent & Sons Ltd., 1918).

³³ Ibid., p. v.

³⁴ Ibid., pp. v-vi.

Germany as an example of centralization under absolute control, France as an instance of centralization under popular control, England as illustrating in her system the principles of individualism and initiative, the United States as embodying the hopes of a democracy, Canada as a country building up an educational system under pioneering conditions of development, and Denmark for the conscious adaptation of an educational system to the needs of an agricultural community.³⁵

In his study on education in Canada, Sandiford observed that "the unique characteristics of Canadian education are mainly the reflections of her stage of economic development" and that "pioneering ... is still playing an active part in her modern life."³⁶ To Sandiford the pioneering or frontier element in Canada's development was a fundamental factor which shaped education in that country.

It is uncertain to what extent Sandiford borrowed from Frederick Jackson Turner (1861-1932) who influenced the treatment of American history by emphasizing the significance of the frontier in American national development. Turner was an American historian who became professor of history at Harvard University from 1910 to 1924. In The Frontier in American History he made the following statement:

Behind institutions, behind constitutional forms and modifications, lie the vital forces that call these organs into life and shape them to meet changing conditions. The peculiarity of American institutions is, the fact that they

³⁵ Ibid., p. vi.

³⁶ Ibid., p. 343.

have been compelled to adapt themselves to the changes of an expanding people -- to the changes involved in crossing a continent, in winning a wilderness and in developing, at each area of this progress out of the primitive economic and political conditions of the frontier into the complexity of city life.³⁷

According to Turner the colonist was mastered by the wilderness which, in turn, was transformed by him. The colonist who successfully met the challenge of the frontier emerged as a new person who was distinctively American. As he expressed it, "In the crucible of the frontier the immigrants were Americanized, liberated, and fused into a mixed race"³⁸ To him, however, the most important effect of the frontier was the promotion of democracy both in America and Europe.³⁹ This, he explained, arose from the fact that the frontier produced individualism which in turn fostered democracy.

Probably taking his cue from Turner, Sandiford argued that pioneering conditions shaped Canadian education. These conditions included the following: (a) the large number of immigrants periodically entering the country, (b) the predominant rural population, (c) the question of bilingualism arising from the presence of English and French speaking immigrants and (d) the great distances separating human

³⁷ Frederick Jackson Turner, The Frontier in American History, (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1953), p. 2.

³⁸ Ibid., pp. 22-23.

³⁹ Ibid., p. 30.

settlements. These conditions, Sandiford stated, presented education with difficult problems which could be solved largely by centralizing the organization of education. Thus arose the centralization of educational organization by the provincial governments of Canada. However he observed that such centralization was "at once the great strength and the great weakness of Canadian education"⁴⁰ because although centralization facilitated the administration of remote schools it eventually produced uniformity and rigidity in the system, thus making it difficult to introduce innovations in respect of courses and type of schools. Sandiford also referred to the ideal of democracy held by Canadians, namely, "that all children whatever their social status, shall be given equal opportunities, so far as it is possible for education to give them,"⁴¹ and observed that the insistence on this ideal partly explained the policy of uniformity in courses and type of schools throughout the country. By this observation he exemplified his statement that an educational system was the expression of the "innermost beliefs, ideals and aspirations of a people."⁴²

Nicholas Hans was also Kandelian in his approach to comparative education. He stated at the beginning of his major work Comparative Education:

⁴⁰ Peter Sandiford, op. cit., p. 434.

⁴¹ Ibid., p. 365.

⁴² Ibid., p. v.

If we could separate and analyse the factors which historically were active in creating different nations we should go a long way towards a definition of the principles which underlie national systems of education.⁴³

Therefore, Hans' interpretation of educational systems depended on the analysis of antecedent factors, in line with the Kandelian approach. The subtitle of his major work was "A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions" and provided the key to his approach, the significant words in the phrase being 'factors' and 'traditions'. Hans held that an educational system was moulded by national character, that it expressed national character and at the same time shaped it. In expressing the purpose of comparative education he stated:

As their national past was formed by factors often common to many nations and as their ideals of the future are the outcome of universal movements, the problems of education in different countries are similar and the principles which guide their solution may be compared and even identified. The analytical study of these factors from a historical perspective and the comparison of attempted solution of resultant problems are the main purpose of Comparative Education.⁴⁴

Furthermore Hans held that in addition to its analytical function, comparative education was to serve very practical purposes. To him comparative education "looks into the future with a firm intent of reform" and also it "has a dynamic

⁴³ Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education: A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions, (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1951), p. 9.

⁴⁴ Ibid., p. 10.

character with a utilitarian purpose."⁴⁵

Hans listed the following as being the main factors influencing or moulding national character as well as educational systems: (1) natural factors which comprised racial, linguistic, geographic and economic factors; (2) religious factors which for Hans included the Catholic, Protestant and Puritan traditions and (3) secular factors which comprised humanism, socialism, nationalism and democracy. In various ways these factors shaped national character in different countries and produced an educational tradition peculiar to each country. Hans used these factors not only to interpret education, but also to identify some of the basic problems which educational systems had to solve. For instance, the racial factor while elucidating educational development in the U.S.A. and South Africa also posed grave moral problems for educators in the two countries.

Writing on nationalism as a factor, Hans outlined its historical development and examined the role of European philosophers and politicians in developing the spirit of nationalism. In the case of Germany he examined several influences which he believed to be actively at work. The philosopher Johann Fichte awakened the national pride of the Germans and advocated a national system of education

⁴⁵ Nicholas Hans, "English Pioneers of Comparative Education," British Journal of Educational Studies, I (November, 1952), p. 56.

"in which everyone is subordinated to the community and contributes through work and action to the welfare of all."⁴⁶ The new education was to include physical education as well as agricultural and industrial training. There was also the influence of the Hegelian conception of the absolute value of the State which superseded all individual rights and gave the Nazi regime a moral justification for their totalitarian policy. Then also there was the ideological unification of the Germans which was achieved by Hitler through appealing to their traditions and particularly the superiority of their race. The Nazi leaders, Hans noted, did everything possible to make every German believe that it was only through the subordination of the individual to the national ideal (as defined by Nazi doctrine) that the maximum prosperity of Germany could be achieved. Hans observed that

The whole theory was a preposterous hypocritical lie consciously used to create fanatical loyalty in the gullible masses of the German people. And as a means of educational indoctrination it was highly successful.⁴⁷

According to Hans, those German youths who were considered to be loyal enough were selected as future leaders and given a special type of education. Thus two systems of education were developed, one for the future leaders and another for the masses, both systems being heavily based on political

⁴⁶ Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education, op. cit., p. 219.

⁴⁷ Ibid., p. 229.

indoctrination. National education aimed at making all youths conform to the ideals of Nazism. Hans quoted Frick, one of the German educators as saying:

The German school has to form a political man, who in all his deeds and thoughts, through sacrifice and service, is deeply rooted in his people and is inseparably bound with the history and fate of his State (as interpreted by Hitler).⁴⁸

The final goal of the German educational system was the acquisition of "Lebensraum" (living space) through war for the Germans. To achieve this objective, Hans remarked, "a conscious perversion of facts and of values was systematically undertaken on an unprecedented scale"⁴⁹ so that all school subjects, especially history and literature, were presented to youths in a perverted form. Every bit of information was handed out from the perspective of the Nazi doctrine of German racial superiority.

The above discussion is an illustration of the way Hans examined education against the background of nationalism, one of his factors shaping national character and education. In Part IV of his book he discussed the educational systems of four selected countries (England, U.S.S.R., U.S.A. and France), basing his argument on what he considered to be the relevant factors which had shaped those systems.

Hans used the historical-philosophical approach in another work entitled The Russian Tradition in Education.⁵⁰

⁴⁸ Ibid.

⁴⁹ Ibid., p. 230.

⁵⁰ Nicholas Hans, The Russian Tradition in Education, (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1963).

The same approach was used in the Year Book of Education, as evidenced by his articles such as "Comparative Study of European Education" (1936), "Comparative Study of Education in Islamic Countries" (1937) and "Comparative Study of Education in Countries of Latin America" (1937).

Vernon Mallinson was also typically Kandelian in his approach to interpretation in comparative education because he based his work not only on history but also largely on the concept of national character and the factors which went to mould it. He argued that every definition of the purpose of education had an implicit philosophy that aimed at producing a type of person that a particular society at a given period in its history wished him to be. Through education a common identity of ideas, desires and ambitions was developed thus uniting everyone, consciously or unconsciously, in a common aim. Mallinson described this common identity of ideas, desires and ambitions as national character which, he stated, was the basis of a people's political constitution, their ideals, their social and cultural outlook.

Very much along the lines charted out by Kandel, Mallinson devoted two chapters of his book⁵¹ published in 1957 to an analysis of national character whose main determinants, he noted, comprised geographical, economic, historical,

⁵¹ Vernon Mallinson, An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education, (London: William Heineman Ltd., 1957).

religious, political and social factors. For illustration he drew on Norway, U.S.A., Holland, France, Belgium, Germany and Switzerland. In a typically Kandelian vein Mallinson wrote of education in France:

Intelligence and clear, precise and logical reasoning based on a sound humanistic culture have been the pride and strength of the French as a nation for centuries, and the avowed aim of the schools for centuries has been to turn out an intelligent, logical, rational and unsentimental bourgeois type.⁵²

After a discussion of various aims of education in a number of countries, Mallinson devoted the rest of his book to an examination of five educational problems, namely, (1) the administration of education, (2) the training of teachers, (3) primary education, (4) secondary education, (5) technical and vocational education. These were examined against the historical and cultural backgrounds of the U.S.A. and several European countries including France, Holland, Denmark, England and Germany. Mallinson's method of approach was in line with his definition of comparative education as

... a systematic examination of other cultures and other systems of education deriving from these cultures in order to discover resemblances and differences, the causes behind resemblances and differences, and why variant solutions have been attempted (and with what result) to problems that are often common to all.⁵³

⁵² Ibid., pp. 16-17.

⁵³ Ibid., p. 10.

However, Mallinson's national character perspective has been criticised by Noah and Eckstein on the grounds of circularity of reasoning. Although the critics agreed that Mallinson fully analysed the determinants of national character, they accused him of failing to solve the main problem involved in the use of the concept. His conclusion, they observed, could not have been anything other than the empty one that education was determined by national character and that national character was partly the result of national education. This was circular reasoning.⁵⁴

Like Kandel, Hans and Mallinson, Robert Ulich based his major work, The Education of Nations (published in 1961), on history and on the factors or forces that shaped educational systems. In the preface to this work he stated his reasons for adopting the historical as well as comparative approach. He wrote:

This book is intended to contribute to an understanding of the forces that have molded the educational ideals and systems of a number of nations. It is historical, because the author is convinced that one cannot comprehend the nature of the educational process without seeing it in its historical context. But this book is also comparative, because only by means of comparison will those features come clearly to light which distinguish the educational evolution in one country from that of others.⁵⁵

⁵⁴ H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit., pp. 6-7, 56.

⁵⁵ Robert Ulich, The Education of Nations: A Comparison in Historical Perspective, (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961), p. v.

Ulich observed that the combination of the historical and comparative approaches would reveal that in spite of differences, the Western nations had basically many things in common arising from their common unifying heritage. They had all been influenced by ancient Greek and Roman civilizations, as well as by movements like the Renaissance, Enlightenment, nationalism and the rise of science and technology. This common heritage which unified the Western nations was what Ulich termed as tertium comparationis, a common element in the objects to be compared. To Ulich historical forces constituted the tertium comparationis. Since he argued that all true comparisons must be based on a tertium comparationis, Ulich devoted Part I of his work to a detailed examination of the historical and cultural foundations of Western education and covered the following four historical periods: (1) the Middle Ages, (2) the Renaissance and Reformation, (3) the Age of Reason, (4) the Era of Technology. In Part II he traced the historical development of education in England, France, Germany, U.S.A. and Russia, showing the influence of economic, political, social and cultural factors and drawing conclusions.

Unlike Kandel and Hans, however, Ulich did not regard nationalism or national character as a proper perspective for examining educational systems. He considered such a perspective to be faulty. In his preface he stated:

... though for a treatise on education, especially in its modern phases, the concept of nations recommends itself as the organizing category (for it is within them that school systems and their ideals develop), this concept is nevertheless deceptive. For history has not merely divided humanity into separate units; it has also created the world community of civilized men.⁵⁶

To Ulich it was more important to recognize that despite national differences, humanity was a single, whole, entity and that education, properly conceived, was to be viewed not from the standpoint of national cultures, but in terms of "a universal tradition that leads man from narrowness and self-isolation toward the great and profound ideas that have emerged from the endless endeavors of humanity."⁵⁷ The national character perspective was, therefore, the one issue on which Ulich disagreed with Kandel, Hans and Mallinson. Apart from this he was one with them all in sticking to historical analysis and examining the relevant factors determining education in different countries.

Arthur Moehlman's Comparative Education was not different in conception and style from that of his contemporaries -- Hans, Ulich and Mallinson -- who all followed the Kandelian analysis. Moehlman's book examined education in specific cultural regions "with due regard to certain historical determinants."⁵⁸ From a historical-philosophical

⁵⁶ Ibid., pp. vi-vii.

⁵⁷ Ibid., p. vii.

⁵⁸ Arthur Henry Moehlman and Joseph S. Roucek (eds.), Comparative Education, (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1951), p. 2.

perspective it analysed education as influenced by pertinent factors in selected areas of the world including U.S.A., Latin America, Great Britain, Italy, Soviet Union, India and Turkey. The contributions in this volume bear a strong imprint of Kandel's work, which is referred to in a number of places.

This chapter has attempted to show that beginning about 1900 the literature in comparative education began to emphasize interpretation. The lead in this direction was provided by Michael Sadler who called the attention of comparative educators to the dynamic relationship between educational systems and the social contexts in which they operated. In this regard the historical-philosophical approach was generally used to examine the forces shaping education in various countries. After Sadler it was Kandel who developed this method of interpretation. Kandel's contribution to comparative education was extensive and has earned him the title of 'Father of Comparative Education' in some circles. However his writing did not show a detailed analysis of the social factors moulding education in different countries; nor were his observations devoid of questionable statements especially about national character. Furthermore, Kandel did not formulate any definite principles for actually comparing educational systems. Sandiford, Mallinson, Ulich, Hans and Moehlman followed the Kandelian tradition of historical-philosophical analysis, producing works which were

generally studies of national character and the forces producing it. The work done by these scholars certainly revealed some amount of depth although some of their observations were subjective rather than objective. Their efforts, however, helped to prepare the way for a more scientific approach which is examined in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VII

THE STAGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE INTERPRETATION

It has been shown that the Kandelian approach was historical-philosophical and that its basic assumption was that the character of an educational system was determined by social factors. This approach was largely abandoned in the latter 1950's when scholars began to analyse the social factors themselves to determine the exact manner in which they influenced education in different countries. The development of quantitative empirical research in the 1950's has contributed to this new approach in comparative education. Numerical data have become more abundant and statistical techniques have developed more and more refined models. Comparative education has recently tended to be oriented to the quantitative empirical approach of the social sciences, particularly economics, sociology and political science. The interpretation of education offered by the Kandelian school had been essentially qualitative and generally subjective. The new trend tended to ignore the old non-quantitative interpretation because, as two authors expressed it,

If comparative education was to fulfil its potential as a tool for educational planning, it had to offer a means of reliable prediction. Without a quantitative base, it appeared, this could not be adequately achieved.¹

¹H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, Toward A Science of Comparative Education, (London & Toronto: The Macmillan Co., 1969), p. 81.

There has, therefore, recently been a tendency to apply social science perspectives and techniques to comparative education studies. Siffin has predicted that this trend will continue into the future. He stated:

Comparative, international, and development education will become even more "social scientized" in the years ahead. Relentlessly expanding efforts will be made to incorporate the perspectives, the logic, and the methods of the social sciences in study and teaching.²

The scientific method has tended to appeal to comparative educators in recent years because it is systematic, controlled and empirical; also it permits the formulation and testing of hypotheses. Since it is generally held that changes in educational variables are dependent on changes in variables in the society it is easy to see why the scientific examination of education has been growing in importance. Hypotheses indicating the relationship between education and society have been formulated and attempts made to test them empirically, using mathematical and social science techniques. At the present stage of its development comparative education "has one foot firmly planted in pedagogy and the other in the wider area of the social sciences."³ Both educators and social scientists are interested in the social dimensions of

²W.J. Siffin, "The Social Sciences, Comparative Education, The Future and All That," Comparative Education Review (October 1969), p. 252.

³H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit., p. 113.

education, and in fact, social scientists have used educational data from different countries. It seems appropriate, therefore, to define the field of comparative education today as follows:

The field of comparative education is best defined as an intersection of the social sciences, education, and cross-national study. Consequently a problem in comparative education is the common concern of both social scientists and educators, but the exclusive concern of neither.⁴

Siffin has expressed the above idea in the following way: "Comparative, international, and development education are, by definition and by the innate nature of their concerns, part of the terrain of the social sciences."⁵

In Part III of their book, Toward a Science of Comparative Education, Noah and Eckstein advocated the use of the scientific method in comparative education and demonstrated with two model hypotheses how this method could be applied. One of the hypotheses was as follows:

Countries where the level of educational development is high relative to the level of economic development will experience rapid economic growth subsequently; countries where the educational level is low relative to the economic level will experience slower rates of economic growth subsequently.⁶

In order to test the hypothesis data were collected for sixteen high-growth countries (that is, countries with a

⁴ Ibid., p. 121.

⁵ W.J. Siffin, op. cit., p. 253.

⁶ H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit., p. 131.

high economic growth rate which is more than 2.5 per cent per annum) for the seven years from 1957 to 1964 (see under G in Table II). The indicators (measures) selected for the educational level comprised the following: (1) school enrolment ratio for the primary and secondary levels (S), (2) public expenditure on education as a percentage of the national income (E), (3) illiteracy rate, that is, percentage of the population aged fifteen years and over that is illiterate (L). For the economic level the following indicators were selected, namely, (1) per capita gross national product (Y) and (2) average annual growth rate of per capita output (G). A composite educational index, (C), was obtained by calculating the average for all three educational indicators. Then also an educational-economic profile, (D), was obtained by subtracting the composite education index from the gross national product (G.N.P) per capita index.

To confirm the hypothesis one would expect to find a higher percentage of countries with a favourable educational-economic profile (that is, positive D-value) among the high-growth countries than among the low-growth countries. In actual fact this is the case because among the sixteen high-growth countries there are ten with positive D-values, giving a percentage of sixty-four while among the twenty-six low-growth countries (Table III) fourteen have positive D-values, giving a percentage of fifty-four. But since the difference between sixty-four per cent and fifty-four per cent was not

TABLE II

AVERAGE D-VALUE OF THE GROUP OF HIGH-GROWTH COUNTRIES

Economic Growth Rate	G.N.P. Per Capita	Educational Indicators					Composite Ed. Index	Educational-Economic Profile
		G	Y	S	E	L		
Puerto Rico	12.0	6	2	1/2	1	8	3.8	2.2
Bulgaria	11.4	12	9		10	7	8.7	3.3
Egypt	10.4	16	16	8 1/2	13	5	12.5	3.5
Rumania	10.3	10	15		5	2	10.0	0.0
Japan	10.2	13	1		5	5	1.7	11.3
Finland	10.1	2	5		5	5	5.0	-3.0
Yugoslavia	9.0	11	12		12	10	11.3	-0.3
Israel	7.4	5	4		4	4	4.0	1.0
Hungary	7.1	8	8		4	3	5.0	3.0
Portugal	6.3	15	14	10	13	12	13.0	2.0
Greece	6.1	14	10	14	14	9	11.0	3.0
U.S.S.R.	6.1	4	6	3	3	1	3.3	0.7
Canada	5.4	1	7	6	1/2	6	6.8	-5.8
Italy	5.1	7	13	11	6	6	10.0	-3.0
Denmark	4.8	3	2	1/2	8	1/2	5.5	-2.5
Panama	4.7	9	11	6 1/2	11	11	9.5	-0.5
							(Σ D) Sum of the D's	14.9
							(\bar{D}) Average D-Value	0.93

Source: H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit., p. 153.

TABLE III

AVERAGE D-VALUE OF THE GROUP OF LOW-GROWTH COUNTRIES

	Economic Growth Rate	G.N.P. Per Capita	Enroll-ment	Expenditure	Illiteracy	Composite Ed. Index	Educational-Economic Profile	D
	G	Y	S	E	L	C		D
Pakistan	2.5	26	22	1/2	18	20	20.2	5.8
El Salvador	2.5	11	14	1	4	14	14.0	-3.0
U.S.A.	2.4	1	1	1	1	1	1.0	0.0
Australia	2.4	2	2	4		3	3.0	-1.0
Tunisia	2.3	18	19	1/2	11	21	20.3	-2.3
Guatemala	2.3	15	19	1/2	11	18	16.2	-1.2
Iran	2.1	21	1/2	24		23	23.5	-2.0
Haiti	2.1	23	22	1/2	16	25	21.3	1.7
Colombia	1.9	6	13	13	13	10	12.0	-6.0
India	1.8	24	21	8	8	19	16.0	8.0
Turkey	1.5	8	16	11	11	16	14.3	-6.3
Ecuador	1.5	12	11	1/2	11	11	11.2	0.8
Venezuela	1.5	3	11	1/2	7	12	10.2	-7.2
Sudan	1.5	21	1/2	26		24	25.0	-3.5
Spain	1.5	10	10	10	14	4	9.5	0.5
Bolivia	1.4	25	17			17	17.0	8.0
Brazil	1.3	9	15	5	6	13	11.3	-2.3
Philippines	1.2	13	5	5	5	9	5.3	6.7
Chile	1.1	14	7	7	9	5	7.0	7.0
Honduras	0.9	17	18	16	1/2	15	16.5	0.5
Paraguay	0.8	10	19	14	1/2	7	10.2	9.8
Argentina	0.3	5	3	2		3	2.7	2.3
Costa Rica	0.3	7	5	5		6	5.5	1.5
Ceylon	0.2	19	5	3		8	5.3	13.7
Morocco	0.0	16	25	25		22	23.5	-7.5
Uruguay	-1.3	4	8	2		2	5.0	1.0

Source: H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit.,

p. 154.

(Σ D) Sum of the D's

23.0

(D) Average D-Value

0.88

considered significant enough, a more accurate test of the hypothesis was to weight the figures and compare them. The weighting was done in column three of Table IV and Table V by multiplying the economic growth rate (G) by the educational-economic profile (D). Countries with a positive educational-economic profile are marked D>0; those with a negative educational-economic profile are marked D<0. After manipulating the data it is evident that the high-growth countries (Table IV) with a positive educational-economic profile achieved an average growth-rate of 9.3 per cent per annum which was higher than the 6.3 per cent for those countries with a negative educational-economic profile. The difference was considered to be significant since it was almost one-third. Therefore for the high-growth countries the hypothesis was confirmed. However with the low-growth countries (Table V) the hypothesis was disconfirmed because whereas the growth-rate for those countries with a negative educational-economic profile was 1.4 per cent per annum, the corresponding figure for those with positive educational-economic profile was 1.1 per cent. In other words countries with a high educational level relative to economic level achieved a subsequent average growth rate that was lower than countries with a negative educational-economic profile.⁷

⁷ For a bibliography of comparative education studies using the concepts and techniques of Economics and Statistics see Brian Holmes and S.B. Robinson, Relevant Data in Comparative Education, (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963), pp. 124-127.

TABLE IV

HIGH-GROWTH COUNTRIES. A COMPARISON OF EDUCATIONAL-ECONOMIC PROFILES AND SUBSEQUENT ECONOMIC GROWTH

Educational Economic Profile	Growth Rates by Groups			
	D	D > 0	D < 0	Weighted
	D	D > 0	D < 0	D < 0
Puerto Rico	2.2	12.0		26.0
Bulgaria	3.3	11.4		38.0
Egypt	3.5	10.4		36.4
Rumania	0.0			
Japan	11.0	10.2		115.6
Finland	-3.0		10.1	30.5
Yugoslavia	-0.3		9.0	3.0
Israel	1.0	7.4		7.4
Hungary	3.0	7.1		21.3
Portugal	2.0	6.3		12.6
Greece	3.0	6.1		18.3
U.S.S.R.	0.7	6.1		4.3
Canada	-5.8		5.4	31.1
Italy	-3.0		5.1	15.3
Denmark	-2.5		4.8	12.0
Panama	-0.5		4.7	2.4
$\Sigma G =$	77.0	77.0	39.1	279.9
$\bar{G} =$	8.6	8.6	6.5	9.3
(Sum of the weights)			(30.0)	(15.1)

Source: H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit., p. 168.

TABLE V

LOW-GROWTH COUNTRIES. A COMPARISON OF EDUCATIONAL-ECONOMIC PROFILES AND SUBSEQUENT ECONOMIC GROWTH

Educational-Economic Profile	Growth Rates by Groups				
	D	D > 0	D < 0	Unweighted	Weighted
	D	D > 0	D < 0	D > 0	D < 0
Pakistan	5.8	2.5		14.6	
E1 Salvador	-3.0		2.5		7.5
U.S.A.	0.0				
Australia	-1.0		2.4		2.4
Tunisia	-2.3		2.3		5.2
Guatemala	-1.2		2.3		2.7
Iran	-2.0		2.1		4.3
Haiti	1.7	2.1		3.5	
Colombia	-6.0		1.9		11.4
India	8.0	1.8		14.4	
Turkey	-6.3		1.5		9.5
Ecuador	0.8	1.5		1.3	
Venezuela	-7.2		1.5		10.8
Sudan	-3.5		1.5		5.3
Spain	0.5	1.5		0.8	
Bolivia	8.0	1.4		11.2	
Brazil	-2.3		1.3		3.0
Philippines	6.7	1.2		8.0	
Chile	7.0	1.1		7.7	
Honduras	0.5	0.9		0.5	
Paraguay	9.8	0.8		7.9	
Argentina	2.3	0.3		0.7	
Costa Rica	1.5	0.3		0.5	
Ceylon	13.7	0.2		2.7	
Morocco	-7.5		0.0		0.0
Uruguay	-1.0		-1.3		-1.3
			18.0	73.8	60.8
			1.5	1.1	1.4
(Sum of the weights)			(66.3)	(43.8)	
$\Sigma G = 15.2$					
$\bar{G} = 1.2$					

Source: H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit., p. 169.

This was the hypothetico-inductive approach advocated by Noah and Eckstein for the comparative study of education. They emphasized the necessity of beginning comparative education studies with a set of hypotheses to be empirically tested cross-nationally. In taking this stand they were opposed to Bereday who suggested that the comparative educator should proceed according to the following stages: (1) the amassing of data about various school systems, (2) the interpretation of the data, (3) juxtaposition of the data to formulate hypotheses for testing and (4) comparison of the findings.⁸ Noah and Eckstein rejected Bereday's schema because it involved much waste of time and effort as well as the danger of bias. They stated:

Relegation of the hypothesis-formulation to the late point it occupies in Bereday's schema permits contemporary workers in comparative education to perpetuate the two prime weaknesses of their nineteenth-century predecessors: the indiscriminate amassing of pedagogical and social information and the dominance of a priori assumptions over both the collection of facts and the conclusions drawn from them.⁹

Thus Noah and Eckstein advocated an efficient and objective use of the hypothetico-inductive approach. At the end of their book they suggested a number of hypotheses which could be used as the basis for studying various aspects of education cross-nationally and scientifically.

⁸ G.Z.F. Bereday, Comparative Method in Education, (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1964), pp. 11-28.

⁹ H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, op. cit., p. 64.

In Scientific Investigations in Comparative Education,¹⁰ Noah and Eckstein similarly advocated the scientific, analytical approach to the study of relationships between education and society, using cross-national data. The articles indicated the use of quantitative research techniques as well as attempts to test hypotheses empirically. The fields covered by the text included psychology, sociology, cultural anthropology, economics and political science.

For instance, one article by Adam Curle used the perspective and concepts of political science to examine some relationships between society and education. Curle posited the existence of four types of political systems, namely, (1) competitive egalitarian, (2) competitive non-egalitarian, (3) non-competitive egalitarian and (4) non-competitive non-egalitarian. (The competitive political systems were generally speaking, the democracies. The non-competitive societies included the dictatorships, oligarchies and single party states. The egalitarian societies were those which upheld the doctrine of equal rights). According to Curle each type of political system had a particular form of educational system as well as planning approach; also the quality and function of the educational system were related

¹⁰ M.A. Eckstein and H.J. Noah (eds.), Scientific Investigations in Comparative Education, (Toronto: The Macmillan Company, 1969).

to the type of political system. These relationships are shown in Table VI.

Curle hypothesized that "a country's degree of egalitarianism affects its educational policy regardless of whether or not its political system is competitive."¹¹ Owing to lack of data he eventually restricted his investigation to a straight comparison between egalitarian and non-egalitarian educational systems in underdeveloped countries. To test the modified hypothesis, samples of twenty egalitarian and thirty-one non-egalitarian countries were selected (Table VII and Table VIII). The indicators selected comprised, (1) planning organization (that is, capacity for rational decision-making) and (2) quality and efficiency (that is, teacher-training competence and curriculum regulation). In respect of both indicators, scores of 3, 2 or 1 were awarded corresponding to good, average or poor. The remaining indicators were per capita expenditure on education, per capita income and percentage of national income invested in education. As regards the planning and quality average figures it was found that the egalitarian countries had significantly higher scores than the non-egalitarian countries. A check on the other indicators showed that the average percentage of national income invested in education was much higher in egalitarian countries than in non-egalitarian

¹¹ Adam Curle, "Education, Politics and Development," Ibid., p. 352.

TABLE VI
SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS AND FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

Type of Political System	Form of Educational System	Planning Approach	Quality	Function
1. Competitive Egalitarian	Unitary	Strong	Good	Economic
2. Competitive Non-Egalitarian	Dual	Fairly Strong	Varied, usually good for elite	Economic, Traditional
3. Non-Competitive Egalitarian	Unitary	Strong	Good	Economic, Political
4. Non-Competitive Non-Egalitarian	Dual, or Unitary if only for elite	Weak	Poor	Traditional

Source: M.A. Eckstein and H.J. Noah, (eds.), Scientific Investigations in Comparative Education, (Toronto: The Macmillan Co., 1969), p. 362.

TABLE VII

RELATION BETWEEN POLITICAL SYSTEMS AND DEVELOPMENT

(A) Non-Egalitarian Countries	Planning Organization	Quality and Effic.	Per Cap. Expend. US Dllrs.	Per Cap. Income US Dllrs.	Percent. Nat. Inc. in Educ.
Afghanistan	1	1	1	54	0.2
Algeria	3	3	-	-	3.3
Angola	1	1	-	-	-
Brazil	1	2	32	262	2.6
British Guiana	1	1	-	-	3.7
Burma	1	1	1	52	3.6
Ceylon	1	2	5	122	4.6
Chile	1	2	10	180	2.4
Colombia	2	2	14	330	2.1
Dominion Rep.	1	1	4	205	1.6
Ecuador	2	2	3	204	1.7
Ethiopia	1	1	0.6	54	-
Greece	1	2	5	239	1.6
Guatemala	2	2	3	179	2.4
India	3	2	1	72	1.7
Iran	1	1	5	100	-
Iraq	1	1	11	195	-
Korea	1	1	2	80	4.1
Laos	1	1	2	-	-
Liberia	1	1	1	103	-
Mauritius	2	2	-	-	3.5
Mexico	2	2	5	178	1.4
Pakistan	2	1	0.6	56	1.2
Panama	2	2	13	350	3.9
Philippines	3	2	6	201	3.2
Portugal	1	2	4	201	2.0
Rhodesia & Nyasaland	1	1	-	-	3.6
Saudi Arabia	1	1	5	166	-
Turkey	1	2	5	276	2.2
Vietnam	1	1	2	133	-
Yemen	1	1	-	-	-
Average	1.45	1.55	5.18	166	2.57

Source: M.A. Eckstein and H.J. Noah (eds.), op. cit., p. 363.

TABLE VIII
RELATION BETWEEN POLITICAL SYSTEMS AND DEVELOPMENT

(B) Egalitarian Countries	Plan. Organ.	Qual. and Effic.	Per Cap. Expend. US Dllrs.	Per Cap. Income US Dllrs.	Percent. Nat. Inc. in Educ.
Argentina	2	2	9	374	2.5
Barbados	3	3	-	-	3.4
Bolivia	1	1	1	66	-
Costa Rica	2	2	14	307	4.0
Cuba	2	2	18	361	3.4
Cyprus	3	3	17	374	4.3
Congo (L)	1	1	4	98	5.1
Egypt	3	2	6	131	-
Ghana	2	2	4	135	1.5
Israel	3	3	28	540	3.0
Jamaica	2	2	-	-	2.3
Japan	3	3	16	240	5.7
Malta	2	3	-	-	4.4
Mexico	2	2	5	178	1.4
Nigeria	3	1	0.7	21	1.9
Puerto Rico	3	2	-	-	7.4
Tanganyika	2	1	0.6	61	3.0
Trinidad	2	3	-	-	2.7
Tunisia	2	2	7	133	3.4
Venezuela	2	2	39	762	4.1
Average	2.25	2.10	11.74	255	3.53

Source: M.A. Eckstein and H.J. Noah (eds.), op. cit.,
p. 364.

countries. Also as regards average per capita expenditure on education, the egalitarian countries spent far more than the non-egalitarian countries. The results confirmed the hypothesis that a country's degree of egalitarianism affects its educational policy.

Two internationally reputed scholars, Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, have used the techniques of economics to examine certain relationships between education and economic development and also to compare educational systems. In Education, Manpower and Economic Growth the two authors used quantitative analysis to rank seventy-five countries on the basis of indicators of human resource development and grouped them into four levels of human resource development. The indicators used were as follows: (i) gross national product per capita, (ii) percentage of the population employed in agriculture, (iii) primary and secondary school teachers per 10,000 population, (iv) scientists and engineers per 10,000 population, (v) enrollment ratios in primary, secondary and higher education, (vi) percentage of population enrolled in faculties of science, technology, humanities, and law, (vii) percentage of national income invested in education and (viii) percentage of the population in the 5-14 age group. A composite index of human resource development was

calculated¹² and used as the basis for dividing the seventy-five countries into four levels of human resource development, namely, Level I (Under-developed countries), Level II (Partially developed countries), Level III (Semi-advanced) and Level IV (Advanced). See Table IX(a) and Table IX (b). The result of the study suggested that there were significant statistical relationships between economic and educational factors and that levels of educational expenditure and development were related. Within their framework of levels of human resource development, the two authors analysed and compared the educational systems of the four groups of countries. The problems of human resource development at each level were examined and appropriate strategies for improvement suggested.

Somewhat similar to the Harbison and Myers' study is Beeby's Quality of Education in Developing Countries in which the author suggested a theory of developmental stages of primary school systems and stated that every country generally passed through the various stages. Unlike the previous study, however, Beeby did not prove his argument inductively and observed that the proof of existence of such stages "may have to wait until the stages and sub-stages can be expressed quantitatively."¹³ The stages were as follows: (1) dame

¹² Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth, (New York, Toronto and London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964), pp. 31-33.

¹³ C.E. Beeby, The Quality of Education in Developing Countries, (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1966), p. 88.

TABLE IX (a)

COUNTRIES GROUPED BY LEVELS OF HUMAN RESOURCE
DEVELOPMENT ACCORDING TO COMPOSITE INDEX

Level I, Underdeveloped		Level II, Partially developed	
0.3	Niger	10.7	Guatemala
0.75	Ethiopia	10.7	Indonesia
1.2	Nyasaland	10.85	Libya
1.55	Somalia	14.2	Burma
1.9	Afghanistan	14.5	Dominican Republic
1.9	Saudi Arabia	14.8	Bolivia
2.2	Tanganyika	15.25	Tunisia
2.6	Ivory Coast	17.3	Iran
2.95	Northern Rhodesia	19.5	China (Mainland)
3.55	Congo	20.9	Brazil
4.1	Liberia	22.6	Colombia
4.75	Kenya	22.7	Paraguay
4.95	Nigeria	23.15	Ghana
5.3	Haiti	23.65	Malaya
5.45	Senegal	24.3	Lebanon
5.45	Uganda	24.4	Ecuador
7.55	Sudan	25.2	Pakistan
		26.8	Jamaica
		27.2	Turkey
		30.2	Peru
		31.2	Iraq

Source: Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers,
Education, Manpower and Economic Growth,
 (New York, Toronto, London: McGraw-Hill
 Book Co., 1964), p. 33.

TABLE IX (b)

COUNTRIES GROUPED BY LEVELS OF HUMAN RESOURCE
DEVELOPMENT ACCORDING TO COMPOSITE INDEX

Level III, Semiadvanced		Level IV, Advanced	
33.0	Mexico	77.1	Denmark
35.1	Thailand	79.2	Sweden
35.2	India	82.0	Argentina
35.5	Cuba	84.9	Israel
39.6	Spain	85.8	West Germany
40.0	South Africa	88.7	Finland
40.1	Egypt	92.9	U.S.S.R.
50.8	Portugal	101.6	Canada
47.3	Costa Rica	107.8	France
47.7	Venezuela	111.4	Japan
48.5	Greece	121.6	United Kingdom
51.2	Chile	123.6	Belgium
53.9	Hungary	133.7	Netherlands
53.9	Taiwan	137.7	Australia
55.0	South Korea	147.3	New Zealand
56.8	Italy	261.3	United States
60.3	Yugoslavia		
66.5	Poland		
68.9	Czechoslovakia		
69.8	Uruguay		
73.8	Norway		

Source: Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, Ibid.

school stage with ill-educated, untrained teachers, (2) the stage of formalism with ill-educated but trained teachers and with emphasis on the three R's as well as rigid methods, (3) the stage of transition, with better educated and trained teachers as well as less emphasis on rigid methods and (4) the stage of meaning, with well-educated, well-trained teachers and emphasis on meaning and understanding.

The concepts and methods of sociology have recently provided the basis for several publications in comparative education. For instance a number of studies have been done to show the relationship of education to social change and social mobility in various societies. A few writers in these areas include Havighurst, Anderson, Bowman and Foster.¹⁴ With reference to four societies (U.S.A., England, Australia and Brazil), Havighurst has examined the relationship of education to social change and social mobility, his basic proposition being "that industrialization leads to social change which produces social mobility ... and that education may affect the pace of social change and the degree of social mobility."¹⁵ The study attempted to determine the relationship between social mobility and education in societies

¹⁴ For instance Philip Foster, Education and Social Change in Ghana, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965). Also Mary J. Bowman and C. Arnold Anderson, "Concerning the Role of Education in Development," in Clifford Feertz (ed.), Old Societies and New States, (New York: The Free Press, 1963), pp. 247-279.

¹⁵ Robert J. Havighurst, "Education, Social Mobility and Social Change in Four Societies," International Review of Education, Volume 4, (1958), p. 170.

undergoing industrialization and urbanization. The following observations were made at the end of the study, (1) that there was much social mobility in industrial societies, (2) that education tended to foster mobility through its influence on such factors as technology and individual talent, (3) that different countries made different uses of education in relation to social mobility.

In Comparative Perspectives on Education edited by Havighurst, the sociological perspective was largely employed to examine education in five selected societies, namely, (1) preliterate societies, typified by the Hopi Indians, (2) modern commercial-industrial societies (France, the Soviet Union, Japan, Brazil), (3) transitional societies (China, Ghana, Tudor England), (4) societies with a dominant theme such as apartheid in South Africa, (5) societies with a predominant religious influence such as the Sudan and the Netherlands.¹⁶

Havighurst argued that in every society the educational system was governed by the dominant social institutions (such as the family, church, state and the economy) and that each society had its own peculiar problems which were usually solved through adjustments in the educational system. He

¹⁶ Robert J. Havighurst (ed.), Comparative Perspectives on Education, (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1968). For a bibliography of comparative education studies using the perspectives and methods of sociology see Brian Holmes and S.B. Robinson, op. cit., pp. 117-119.

observed that "one good way to study education comparatively is to study the educational responses made by various societies to their social problems."¹⁷ This idea was largely the basis of the book which examined education in the five types of societies.

The University of Pittsburgh's Studies in Comparative Education series examined education in selected countries generally using the perspectives of the social sciences. Up to 1965 four publications had come out and dealt with English secondary education, educational reform in Russia, and education in each of Norway and Brazil.¹⁸ The last, entitled Society in Education in Brazil,¹⁹ examined the historical and cultural background of Brazilian education and also showed the present day relationship of education to the country's basic social institutions, namely, the family, church, economy and state.

The perspectives of political science have been used to analyse and compare educational systems. In Education and Political Development²⁰ an attempt was made to examine the

¹⁷ Ibid., p. xv.

¹⁸ Samuel Everett, Growing Up in English Secondary Schools: Significance for American Practice, (University of Pittsburgh, 1968). George Counts, Khrushchev and the Central Committee Speak on Education, (University of Pittsburgh, 1959). Helen Huus, The Education of Children and Youth in Norway, (University of Pittsburgh, 1960).

¹⁹ R.J. Havighurst and J.R. Moreira, Society and Education in Brazil, (University of Pittsburgh Press, 1965).

²⁰ James S. Coleman (ed.), Education and Political Development, (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1965).

relationship between the educational process and political development in a number of countries. Among other things it dealt with education as a factor of political development as well as a matter of political decision. Part I focused on some of the new developing countries (French African countries, Nigeria, Indonesia, Tunisia, Egypt, Brazil) whose educational development was examined and the effects of their different colonial experiences shown. This section examined the political functions of education such as (1) the political socialization of children and youth (that is the process by which people acquire attitudes toward the political system as well as their role in it and loyalty to it) and (2) the recruitment of elites. The differences between the various countries, as regards the political functions of education, come out in the text. For instance, in the predominantly traditional, feudal-type society of Brazil education had not succeeded in producing "the kinds of political sentiments, skills, and behaviors envisioned in national educational legislation and programs"²¹ whereas in the case of Tunisia "modern education was perhaps the most important single factor in broadening the social and the geographical base of political participation"²²

For purposes of contrast Part II of the book examined education and political development in Russia, Japan and the

²¹ Ibid., p. 217.

²² Ibid., p. 168.

Philippines which had attained more highly developed educational systems as a result of the direct action of the political system. The rest of the book dealt with the education of modern elites in the developing countries as well as the relationship of educational planning to political development.²³

Gunnar Myrdal, director of the Stockholm University Institute for International Economic Studies, has used the perspectives of economics and sociology to study education in Asia. In Volume III of Asian Drama Myrdal made a detailed inquiry into the demographic and educational problems of the countries of South Asia. Education in these regions was viewed against the background of the legacy left by (1) the pre-colonial religious institutions (Buddhism, Hinduism, Islam) each of which "gave rise to mighty educational efforts of a distinctive type"²⁴ and (2) western culture contacts through the activities of colonial governments and missionary societies. The following countries were singled out for intensive study: India, Pakistan, Indonesia, Burma, South Vietnam, Philippines, Thailand, Ceylon, Malaya. The analysis of the literacy rates for the 1951/63 period and the subsequent ranking of the countries showed that they corresponded

²³ For a bibliography of comparative education studies using the perspectives and concepts of political science see Brian Holmes and S.B. Robinson, op. cit., pp. 120-123.

²⁴ Gunnar Myrdal, Asian Drama: An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations, Volume III, (New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1968, p. 162).

"roughly with their rank order by economic level."²⁵ Also examined were the obstacles to development in these countries; these included (1) the general ignorance of the people, (2) the uncritical attitude in learning (a legacy of the rote learning characteristic of the pre-colonial Moslem schools and Buddhist monasteries), (3) wrong attitude to manual work, (4) the general bias against the education of girls and (5) the general poverty of the countries.

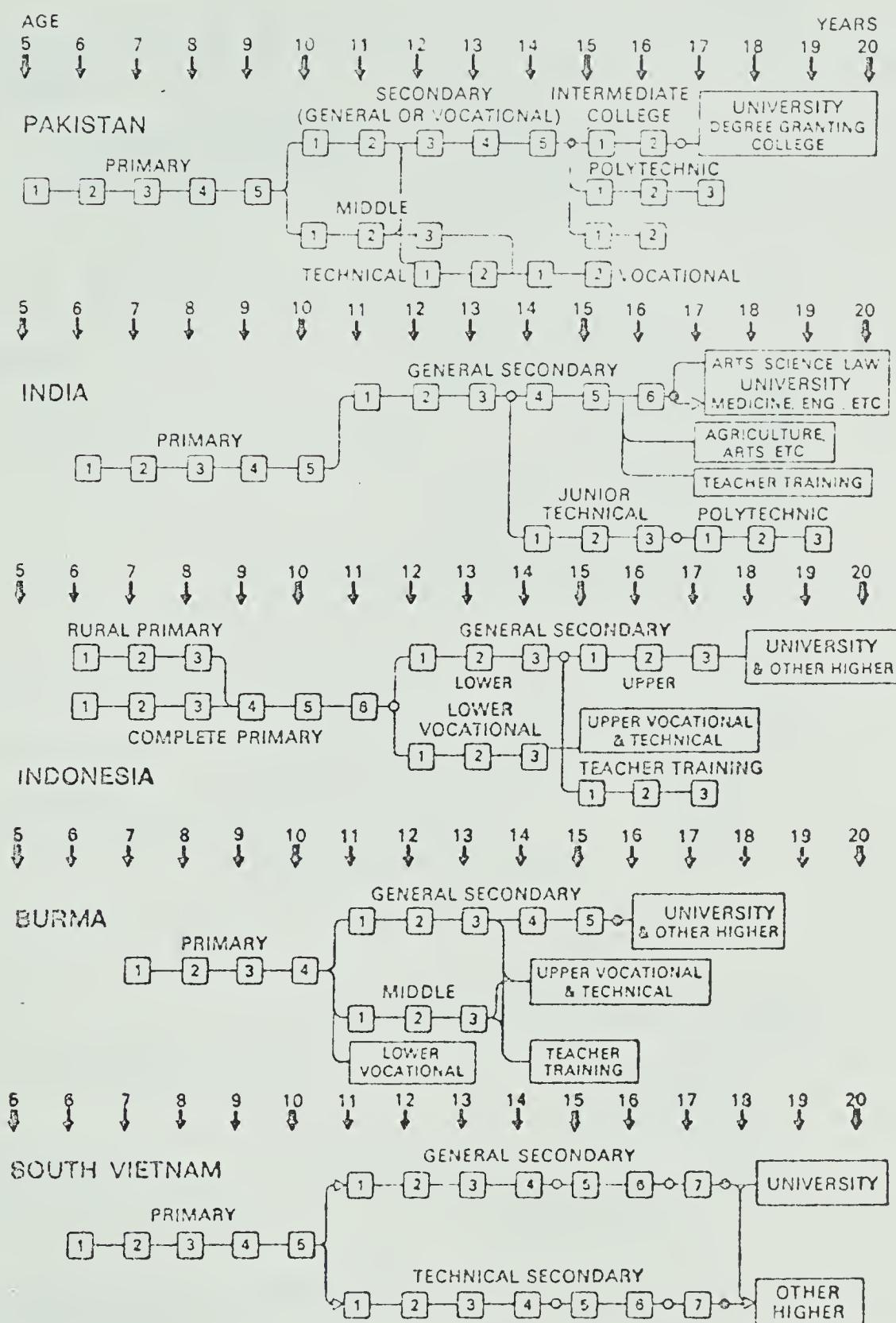
A comparative analysis of the structure of the educational systems in all the nine countries was made (see Figure 1) and the economic and social problems connected with their development examined. Both primary and secondary as well as higher education were included. Also recommendations for improving the quality of education were made as regards (a) proper educational planning in the context of national planning, (b) the provision of "purposefully motivated teachers"²⁶ and (c) educational finance.

From the perspective of anthropology there has been a growing number of comparative studies in education. For instance, in Six Cultures²⁷ the socialization processes in six selected cultures have been analysed. These cultures

²⁵ Ibid., p. 1674. Also see pp. 1674-1675 for comparison of the literacy rates.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 1822.

²⁷ Beatrice B. Whiting (ed.), Six Cultures: Studies of Child Rearing, (New York and London: John Wiley and Sons, 1963).



(Continued on following page)

Figure 1

STRUCTURE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN SOUTH ASIA

(Source: Gunnar Myrdal, *op. cit.*, p. 1698).

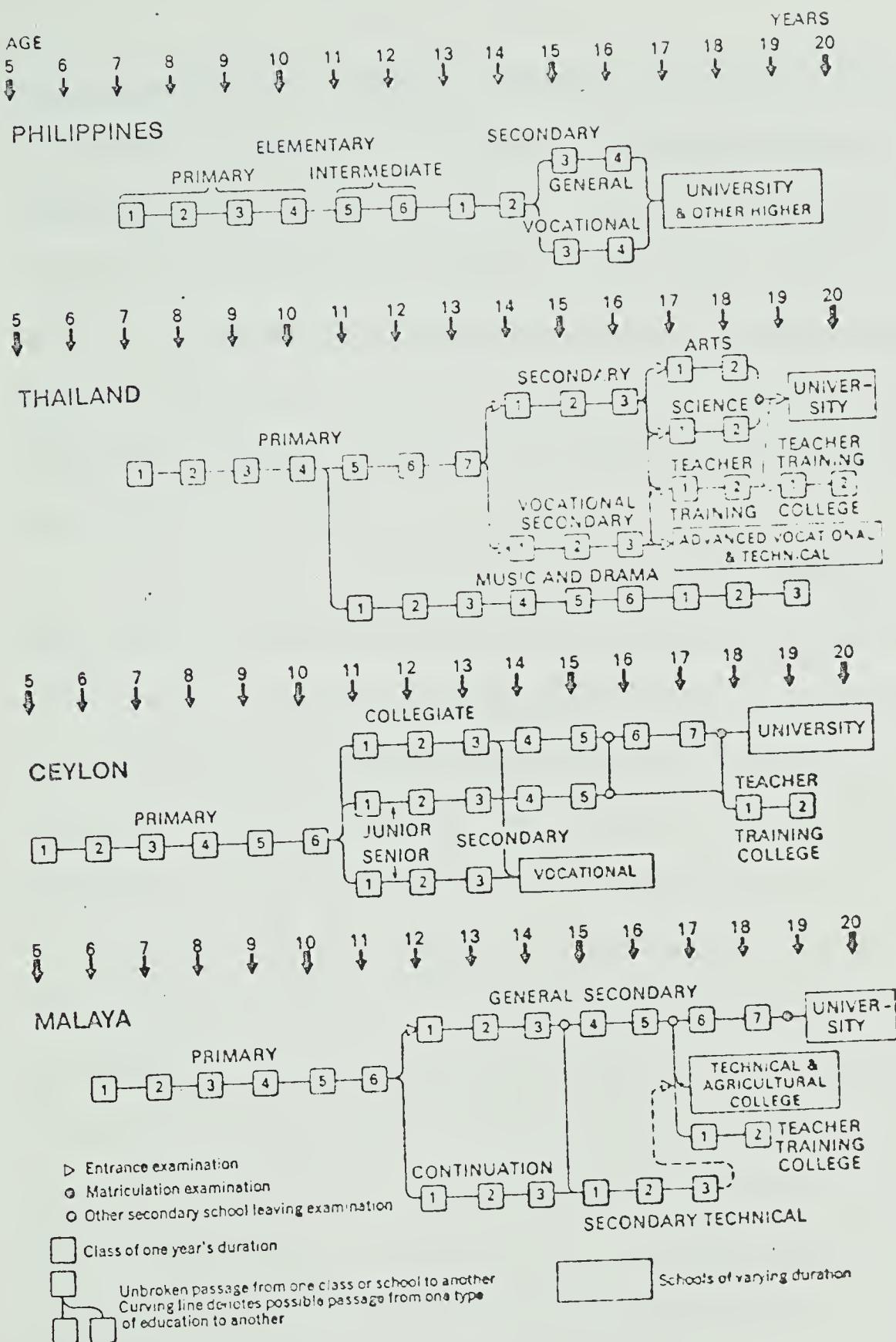


Figure 1 (Contd.)

STRUCTURE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN SOUTH ASIA

(Source: Gunnar Myrdal, *op. cit.*, p. 1699).

were as follows: a Gusii community in Kenya, the Rajputs of Kalapur (India), an Okinawan village community, a Mixtecan community in Mexico, an Ilocos bario in the Philippines and the New Englanders of Orchard Town (USA). The study was the result of the joint effort of several social scientists who tried to examine "cross-culturally the relation between different patterns of child rearing and subsequent differences in personality."²⁸

Then also one might cite the case studies in education and culture edited by George and Louise Spindler.²⁹ The series were based on direct observation and participation in the educational process (formal and informal) in various cultures. The assumption was that an understanding of education could be obtained by studying it "as it is", that is "embedded in the culture of which it is an integral part and which it serves."³⁰ This approach was considered to give meaning to the generalizations about the relationship between education and social systems, and the series were in fact intended for use in courses in comparative education as well as sociology of education, international education, cultural transmission and cultural dynamics. In Education

²⁸ Ibid., p. 1.

²⁹ For example, John Singleton, Nichu: A Japanese School, (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1967). Richard L. Warren, Education in Rebhausen: A German Village, (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1967).

³⁰ John Singleton, op. cit., p. vii.

in Rebhausen, for instance, an account was given of the role of the school in a typical German village undergoing rapid cultural change arising from industrialization.

An approach which has run parallel to the social science approach during the last three decades is the problem approach which is represented by Brian Holmes. Holmes' commitment to the problem approach has rested on his belief "(a) that it is scientific and (b) that it can be used as an instrument of educational reform."³¹ Examining the supposition that an educational problem was the same everywhere, Holmes commented that thorough analysis "certainly may reveal important differences in its national characteristics which may be as much of kind as of degree."³² Therefore, he argued that

One task the comparative educationist should ... undertake is, having identified the universal, vaguely perceived problem, to intellectualize (or analyse) it in general terms, and then to reveal its specific features in selected contexts.³³

Holmes based his problem approach on John Dewey's method of inquiry.³⁴ According to Dewey the function of reflective thinking was to solve a problem. Problem-solving required a number of reflective processes, namely,

³¹ Brian Holmes, Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965), p. 3.

³² Ibid., p. 35.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ John Dewey, How We Think, (Boston: D.G. Heath & Co., 1933).

(1) hypothesis or solution formulation, (2) the analysis or intellectualization of the problem, (3) the analysis and specification of the context, (4) the logical deduction of the consequences and (5) practical verification. Holmes stated that to almost any problem there were several possible solutions and that in practice each represented a policy choice. Using Dewey's model, he suggested that the comparative educator in his investigation of a problem should be concerned with all or some of the following phases of reflective thinking:

(a) problem analysis; (b) policy formulation; (c) the identification, description, and weighting of relevant factors within a given context; and (d) the anticipation or prediction of the outcomes of policies.³⁵

Holmes was committed to the problem approach because in his view it implied that "understanding of social and educational processes comes from successful prediction rather than ... through the discovery of antecedent causes."³⁶ (It may be recalled that Kandel and his followers used historical evidence to establish antecedent cause-effect relationships). To Holmes historical evidence was to be used not to establish antecedent cause-effect relationships but to illuminate the problem under investigation.

³⁵ Brian Holmes, op. cit., p. 34.

³⁶ Ibid.

The problems to be analysed, according to Holmes, might be purely educational, as for instance, matters about teaching methods and the reorganization of the curriculum; alternatively they might be socio-economic, political or psychological. The actual choice of the problems, however, would be for the investigator to decide. In Part II of his Problems in Education, Holmes analysed a number of problems to illustrate his approach. The problem approach has also been generally employed in the World Year Book of Education series. For instance the 1966 edition focused on the role of the church in education in a number of countries including England, the USA, France, the Netherlands, Ceylon, Pakistan, Germany, Brazil and India.³⁷

This chapter has dealt with the general scientific trend in comparative education during the past two decades. The perspectives and methods of the social sciences (economics, sociology, anthropology and political science) have featured prominently in comparative education literature in recent years. At this present stage of its development comparative education has come to stand at the intersection of education, the social sciences and cross-national studies so that a problem in comparative education is now the common concern of scholars from several disciplines. The

³⁷ George Z.F. Bereday and J.A. Lauwers (eds.), The World Year Book of Education 1966 (Church and State in Education), (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1966).

problem approach which is also said to be scientific is a parallel development which has featured in the literature during the past two decades. It appears as if these may be the dominant trends in comparative education in the foreseeable future.

CHAPTER VIII

INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORTS FOR COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

This chapter examines the institutions which have contributed to the development and maintenance of comparative education as a scholarly field of study. These institutions include: (1) comparative education societies, (2) universities and colleges which offer instruction in comparative education and (3) world organizations and centres concerned with comparative education.

The development of comparative education as a field of study has been fostered by the formation of comparative education societies in Europe, U.S.A., Canada and Japan. The Comparative Education Society in U.S.A. was formed in April 1956 at the third annual conference on comparative education held at New York University. The founding officers were William Brickman (President), Robert Sutton (Vice-President) and Gerald Read (Secretary-Treasurer). Outlining the motives for the formation of the society Brickman observed that hitherto the term comparative education had been used rather too loosely and irresponsibly. Furthermore,

There were individuals who, after a tour abroad, began to set themselves up as authorities in the field, to write and speak publicly, and to offer courses in comparative education.... What the Comparative Education Society tried to do was to gain recognition in the academic and professional world as a

group of scholarly-minded, serious specialists with high standards of teaching, research and publication....¹

According to the constitution of the Comparative Education Society which was ratified by the members in June, 1959, the primary objective of the society was to promote and encourage comparative and international studies in education by:

(a) improving the teaching of comparative education in institutions of higher learning;
 (b) stimulating research; (c) facilitating the publication and distribution of comparative studies in education; (d) interesting professors of other disciplines and leaders of area programs in the comparative and international dimensions of their work; (e) arranging inter-visitation by educators and on-the-spot studies of school systems throughout the world; (f) co-operating with those in other disciplines and in area programs in interpreting educational developments in their broad cultural context.²

Soon after its formation the society undertook a study tour of Europe from August to September, 1956. The visits were primarily to educational institutions in France, Holland, Denmark, England, Germany and Switzerland. A second study tour was undertaken to Brazil, Venezuela, Argentina, Chile, Peru and Ecuador during August and September, 1957. The third tour which was undertaken by Bereday, Brickman and Read to the U.S.S.R. in 1958 resulted

¹W.W. Brickman, "Ten Years of the Comparative Education Society," Comparative Education Review, Vol. 10, No. 1, (February 1966), p. 8.

²G.H. Read, "Constitution of the Comparative Education Society," Comparative Education Review, Vol. 3, (October 1959), p. 38.

in the publication of The Changing Soviet Schools.³ Later trips were undertaken to West Africa, South Africa, Japan and other countries.

In addition to its national conferences which have hitherto been held generally in Chicago, the society has held regional and international conferences. The reports of these conferences have been published. Through the conferences as well as the publications resulting from them the Comparative Education Society has succeeded in aiding "the in-service education of professors and graduate students in comparative education and in other branches of education."⁴ The membership of the society grew from 155 in 1956 to 1,350 in 1965.⁵

The official organ of the society has been the Comparative Education Review which started publication in June 1957. Its articles have covered several issues and problems connected with education in international perspective and the periodical was considered by the executive members of the society to be "the major contribution toward the field, both here (U.S.A) and abroad."⁶ In 1968 the name of the society was changed to Comparative and International Education Society.

³G.Z.F. Bereday, W.W. Brickman and G.H. Read (eds.), The Changing Soviet Schools; The Comparative Education Society, Field Study in the U.S.S.R., (Cambridge, Mass.: Riverside Press, 1960).

⁴W.W. Brickman, op. cit., p. 12.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid., p. 13.

The Comparative Education Society in Europe was formed in London in 1961 under the joint sponsorship of the University of London Institute of Education and UNESCO Institute for Education in Hamburg. The idea for its formation dates back to 1951 when an international conference on comparative education was convened in London by Joseph A. Lauwers of the University of London, Friedrich Schneider of the Institut fur vergleichende Erziehungswissenschaft (Salzburg) and the University of Munich, and Nicholas Hans of the University of London. Attending the conference were no less than 16 persons drawn from universities and other organizations in Australia, Belgium, England, Germany, Holland, Italy, U.S.A., and UNESCO.⁷

Soon after its formation in 1961 the constitution of the society was drawn up and accepted by its members at the first general meeting held in Amsterdam in 1963. The following were the stated aims of the society, namely:

... to promote and improve teaching of comparative education, to stimulate research, to facilitate the publication and distribution of comparative studies, to interest professors in other disciplines in the international dimensions of their work, to encourage exchanges, collaboration with other societies and to co-operate with workers in other disciplines.⁸

⁷ W.W. Brickman, "An International Conference on Comparative Education," School and Society, Vol. LXXIII, (1951), pp. 344-345.

⁸ Thelma Bristow and Brian Holmes, Comparative Education Through the Literature, (London: Butterworth and Co. Ltd., 1968), p. 129.

The membership of the Comparative Education Society in Europe has included scholars from Europe, U.S.A., Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Japan. The conference report of the first general meeting held in 1963 was published by the society under the title Comparative Education Research and the Determinants of Educational Policy. Also presented to the 1963 conference was a report by Brian Holmes and S.B. Robinson which was later published by the society under the title Relevant Data in Comparative Education. In 1965 the conference was held in Berlin; its report was published in 1967 at the Hague under the title General Education in a Changing World. The theme of the 1967 conference held in Ghent was "The University in the Education System." In 1966 a British section of the society was formed in Reading to promote comparative and international studies in Great Britain.

The journal entitled Comparative Education was founded in 1964 by a group of scholars in Great Britain. Between 1964 and 1970 its editorial board comprised the following: (1) A.D.C. Peterson, director of Oxford University Institute of Education; (2) Edmund J. King, reader in comparative education in the University of London and (3) W.D. Halls, tutor in comparative education, Oxford University Department of Education. Published in Oxford

the journal has aimed to present up-to-date information on significant educational trends throughout the world. Its articles have been intended to profit teachers, researchers as well as administrators.⁹

The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada (CIESC) was formed in 1967 on the initiative of Joseph Katz, professor of comparative education at the University of British Columbia. The idea for its formation was developed in Chicago in February 1967 when 19 Canadian scholars attending the annual conference of the Comparative Education Society of U.S.A. prepared a draft constitution and elected a provisional executive committee comprising Joseph Katz (president), Robert Lawson (treasurer), Margaret Gillett (secretary) and four members, namely, Andrew Skinner, Colin Smith, Edouard Trudeau and Alexander S. Mowat. The Society was formally established on June 5, 1967, at the University of Ottawa. Joseph Katz was elected the first president. The Donner Canadian Foundation gave a generous grant of \$5,000 to help establish the Society.¹⁰

⁹ See A.D.C. Peterson, "Editorial," Comparative Education, Vol. I, No. I, (October 1964), pp. 1-3).

¹⁰ The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada: Newsletter and Minutes dated October, 1967, p. 1 and newsletter.

According to the constitution approved on June 5, 1967, the purpose of the CIESC was to encourage and promote comparative and international studies in education by:

(a) promoting and improving the teaching of comparative education in institutions of higher learning, (b) stimulating research, (c) facilitating the publication and distribution of comparative studies in education, (d) interesting professors and teachers of other disciplines in the comparative and international dimensions of their work, (e) encouraging visits by educators to study educational institutions and systems throughout the world, (f) co-operating with those in other disciplines who attempt to interpret educational developments in a broad cultural context, (g) organizing conferences and meetings, (h) co-operating with Comparative and International Education Societies, and with governmental and private agencies in order to further their objectives.¹¹

The CIESC has regularly published its proceedings as well as papers presented by scholars at its conferences. The publications from 1967 to 1969 were entitled respectively The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada: Founding Papers: 1967, Papers: 1968 and Papers: 1969. The 1968 conference which was held at the University of Calgary was attended by two distinguished members of the Comparative and International Education Society of U.S.A., namely, Franklin Parker and Gerald Read. Both scholars participated in the deliberations of the conference whose theme was "The International Mosaic in Canadian Education." The theme of

¹¹ The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada: Founding Papers 1967, p. 18.

the 1969 conference was "The Unique Characteristics of Canadian Education."

In 1968 the CIESC was recognized as one of the Learned Societies of Canada. In 1969 the CIESC made a bold move to enhance the image of comparative education by initiating plans "for holding in Canada a World Congress of Comparative Education Societies in 1970."¹²

The Comparative Education Society of Japan was established in 1965. On the occasion of the founding of CIESC, the president of the Comparative Education Society of Japan sent a message of goodwill in which he stated:

Since the establishment of the Comparative Education Society in Japan in 1965, we have expanded our research organization in accordance with the increase of the members ... and made efforts to enrich and to deepen our comparative research programs in various fields of education. On the basis of the resolutions at the general meeting on June 23, 1967, the Society is requesting the Government to increase the budget for establishing the chairs of comparative education at several universities and is now planning to publish a concise list of our academic researches in order to exchange our research information.¹³

The above statement indicates the efforts being made by the new society in Japan to promote the development of comparative education as a worthwhile study.

¹² The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada: Newsletter, February 14, 1969, p. 2.

¹³ The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada: Founding Papers: 1967, p. 30.

One of the problems often discussed at the international conferences of comparative educators has been the question of the definition of comparative education. For instance, at an international conference on comparative education held in Hamburg in April 1955 several fruitless attempts were made to arrive at a generally accepted definition. Attending the conference were 28 participants each of whom had a different conception of comparative education. Speaking at that meeting Rosello Pedro, supported by several other members, stated that the attempt to agree on a definition could do more harm than good and that each one could have his own definition. The meeting eventually decided that "for the time being no attempt should be made to define comparative education."¹⁴ In a similar manner Robert King Hall stated at the Second Annual Conference on Comparative Education at New York University in 1955 that scholars could not very well improve the teaching of the subject "until we are fairly certain as to what it is we wish to teach" and also that there was very little agreement among scholars "as to what constitutes the discipline of comparative education -- nor, for that matter, as to whether

¹⁴ Comparative Education (An International Meeting held from 12 to 16 April, 1955 at the UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg), (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1955), p. 30.

such discipline even exists."¹⁵

The general lack of agreement resulted partly from the changing conception of the subject and also from the fact that the approach to the subject, from the beginning, took on the "coloration of the personalities of its great teachers."¹⁶ The result, Hall observed, was that, instead of a 'science' of comparative education, an 'art' of the subject had been produced since every scholar, as it were, painted a different version of a single portrait. According to Hall, the absence of a clearly defined corpus of knowledge, or generally accepted set of techniques had resulted in the charge that no such discipline as comparative education even existed. Commenting on this issue Friedrich Schneider expressed his viewpoint at the Hamburg conference as follows:

... if Comparative Education is to have an international character ... then agreement must be reached among the representatives of Comparative Education about its conception, its tenor and its extent. It appears to me that this agreement could be reached best if one speaks of Comparative Education only when the educational theory and practice of two or more countries or sectors thereof are being investigated and described with the help of the comparative method.¹⁷

¹⁵ Robert K. Hall, "The Improvement of the Teaching of Comparative Education," in W.W. Brickman (ed.), The Teaching of Comparative Education (Proceedings of the Second Annual Conference on Comparative Education, School of Education, New York University, April 29, 1955), p. 4.

¹⁶ Robert K. Hall, op. cit.

¹⁷ Comparative Education, UNESCO Institute for Education, 1955, op. cit., p. 9.

Even here it can be seen that Schneider's position differs fundamentally from that of, say, Kandel whose concept of comparative education was essentially the prolongation of the history of education into the present. In Appendix C a number of definitions have been given to illustrate the divergence in the conception of comparative education between 1900 and 1970.

The introduction of comparative education into universities and colleges began in the United States during the latter part of the nineteenth century. In 1879 the University of Michigan started a general course on foreign education; this course was re-organized in 1885-86 and was then specifically designated as Comparative Study of Educational Systems. It was supplemented with two courses in the history of education, one on ancient times and the other on the modern period. Travers has observed that

the general course in 1879 and the more specific singular subject of comparative education offered in 1885-86, were the first successful attempts to get comparative education into the curriculum for any length of time.¹⁸

The successful development of the comparative education course at the University of Michigan was largely due to the interest shown by William Harold Payne, the first professor

¹⁸ Paul Travers, "Interest in European Education and the Development of Comparative Education as a Subject of Study in American Universities and Colleges in the Nineteenth Century," Ed. D. Dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1967, p. 232.

of pedagogy at the university. He had a scholarly interest in foreign education systems, particularly those of Europe, and therefore introduced the subject into the curriculum. Payne's successor was Burke Aaron Hinsdale who showed a similar interest. To Hinsdale it was important for educators to understand professional education from both its past and contemporary developments. According to him educational systems had to be studied from the viewpoint of institutional history. He saw every system as being steeped in various philosophies or cultures and for one to understand a national system of education one must examine its historical and cultural backgrounds.¹⁹ He observed that many capable men "are almost universally ill-informed concerning contemporary educational history."²⁰ It may be noted here that Hinsdale's conception of comparative education was identical to that of Kandel, namely, the extension of the history of education into the present. This conception influenced the approach to the subject at Michigan.

The following was Hinsdale's description of the comparative education program at the University of Michigan:

¹⁹ Burke A. Hinsdale, Studies in Education, Science, Art and History, (Chicago: Werner School Book Co., 1896), pp. 182-184. Cited in Paul Travers, op. cit., p. 62.

²⁰ Ibid.

A two hour course is devoted to the comparative study of educational systems, domestic and foreign. The large features of our national system of schools are defined, the relations of the national government to education are discussed, and three or four typical State systems ... are carefully studied. A certain portion of the work in this course is given to the study of the principal continental systems and to that of England.²¹

Another American institution where comparative education studies were pursued in the 1890's was Clark University whose president, Granville Stanley Hall, showed keen interest in the development of the subject. Following the reorganization of the curriculum in 1893, courses in comparative education were introduced. They dealt with: (1) the status and problems of higher education in America and Europe and (2) the organization of European schools especially those of France, Germany, Sweden and England. The courses could be offered toward the doctoral degree. It was at Clark University that Charles Herbert Thurber, in 1899, wrote his doctoral dissertation entitled "The Principles of School Organization: A Comparative Study chiefly based on the Systems of the United States, England, Germany and France."²²

²¹ Burke A. Hinsdale, "The Study of Education at the University of Michigan," Educational Review, VI (December, 1893), p. 446. Cited in Paul Travers, op. cit., p. 237.

²² Paul Travers, op. cit., pp. 248-249.

The best planned course in comparative education during the 1890's appears to have been the one given by Russell at Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. During the 1899/1900 academic year James Earl Russell gave a course in comparative education basing it on his syllabus,²³ the first in the history of Teachers College. Bereday has remarked that "possibly this was the first academic course on comparative education offered any where in the world."²⁴ This remark is incorrect in the light of the observations already made on the University of Michigan and Clark University. What can be said is that Russell's syllabus was probably the best planned ever to emerge in any university at that period. The countries included in the syllabus were Germany, France and England, each of them being treated according to the following general outline: (1) historical development of public education, (2) present organization and administration, (3) elementary education, (4) industrial and technical education, (5) secondary education, and (6) higher education. Appended to each country to be studied was a comprehensive list of references.

Russell's aim was to present a comprehensive view of the selected European systems and to assist students to make

²³ For a reprint of the syllabus see Comparative Education Review, VII (October 1963), pp. 189 - 196.

²⁴ Ibid., p. 189.

intelligent comparisons of the practical workings of those systems with other systems in America or abroad. The course consisted mainly of lectures supplemented by discussion in class. As an aid to individual research, references had been provided at the end of the syllabus and official documents were placed at the disposal of students as occasion demanded. Each student was expected to undertake an independent study of one educational system and present the results of his investigations to class for discussion. For this purpose the educational systems of the following countries were prescribed: Scotland, Ireland, Wales, Switzerland, Holland, Norway, Sweden, the then British colonies and the states comprising the U.S.A. Furthermore, specialists from the school of administration were to be invited occasionally to speak on various topics connected with the course. Finally several excursions were to be undertaken to typical educational institutions in the New York area to enable students to obtain a practical knowledge of their organization and management.²⁵

By 1899, therefore, comparative education had been recognized as an area of study in quite a number of American universities and colleges. The 1894/95 calendars for the following universities, among others, referred to comparative education courses being offered: (1) University of

²⁵Paul Travers, op. cit., pp. 267-268.

Washington: "School Systems: A Comparative Study of Several European countries and the states of the Union", (2) University of the City of New York: "Comparative Systems of Education", (3) University of Chicago: As part of the history of education there was a study of "the rise and development of the school systems of Germany, England, France and the United States."²⁶

In the long run, however, it was at Teachers College that the study of comparative education received much impetus during the first four decades of the twentieth century. Beginning about 1920 there was a vast increase in comparative education literature resulting from the establishment of the International Institute of Teachers College whose work stimulated the preparation of similar studies in other institutions. Also, throughout America "courses in comparative education proliferated greatly after 1920,"²⁷ and there is evidence that the United States federal government was interested in this development. In May 1935, the United States Office of Education (formerly the United States Bureau of Education) formed an Advisory Committee on Comparative Education and held a conference comprising mainly professors of education interested in teaching and research in comparative education. It was reported at this

²⁶ Ibid., pp. 282-284.

²⁷ Thomas Woody, "The Trend Toward International Education," School and Society, LXXXIII, (January 21, 1956), p. 20.

conference that "778 teachers were actively teaching comparative education, history of education, and philosophy of education, either separately or in combination."²⁸ It was after this conference that the United States Commissioner of Education changed the title of the Division of Foreign School Systems in the federal office of education to Division of Comparative Education. The conference recommended

that courses in general comparative education be instituted in schools of education at an early date where they are not already, and that as far as possible the pursuit of such courses by graduate students be encouraged, looking toward the future possibility of making such obligatory.²⁹

At a subsequent conference in 1936 it was recommended that the United States Office of Education expand the services and activities of the Division of Comparative Education in view of the growing interest in the field.³⁰ However the outbreak of the Second World War appears to have interrupted the implementation of this recommendation.

Teaching and research in comparative education at Teachers College, Columbia University, were greatly promoted

²⁸ I.L. Kandel, United States Activities in International Cultural Relations, (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Educational Studies, No. 23, 1945), p. 58.

²⁹ Ibid., p. 60.

³⁰ "At Teachers College, Columbia University, alone 7,000 students were enrolled in courses in comparative education from 1923 to 1938," see Ibid.

by such scholars as Paul Monroe, Isaac Kandel, William Russell, George Counts and Peter Sandiford. Up to about 1950 the approach to the subject was primarily historical-philosophical as evidenced by the publications of the college's scholars, for instance, Kandel's Comparative Education.

Comparative education was eventually recognized institutionally at Teachers College where it was grouped with International Education and designated as "Comparative and International Foundations of Education". This was one of the areas of specialization in the Social and Philosophical Foundations at Teachers College. Beginning in the 1950's the college was more and more concerned with "the application of liberal disciplines to the study of education; and with the development of the problem approach."³¹ This development was in line with the changing conception of comparative education as made evident in the developmental stages. Also it became concerned with defining and refining the methods of comparative education, as well as studying cross-cultural contacts, particularly student exchanges, fundamental education and the uses of American aid abroad. There has therefore been a combination of comparative and international education studies. The

³¹ G.Z.F. Bereday, "Comparative Education at Columbia University," Comparative Education Review, (June, 1960), p. 15.

establishment of the International Institute of Teachers College in 1923 inevitably exerted its influence on the comparative education program. Speaking on comparative education studies at Teachers College, Robert King Hall argued before the Second Annual Conference on Comparative Education in 1955 that if comparative education was concerned with the study of social problems it was logical for the material to be organized around problems. He therefore observed that at Teachers College they had elected "to divide the field, largely for administrative convenience, into two types of problems which we call Comparative Education and International Education".³² The comparative education courses have therefore included international education studies.

Bereday reported that in 1960 some twenty courses in comparative education were being offered at Teachers College.³³ These were grouped into three categories as follows: (1) General, (2) Problems, (3) Area Studies. The first category comprised the fundamentals of comparative education and of international education, seminars on methods and problems in comparative and international education as well as individual guidance courses. The courses in the second category dealt with mass culture,

³² Robert King Hall, op. cit., p. 8.

³³ G.Z.F. Bereday, op. cit., p. 15.

indoctrination, nationalism, cross-cultural contacts, problems of underdeveloped countries and the United Nations. The area studies in the third category dealt with Europe, Asia and Africa. The popularity of these courses may be evidenced by the fact that "over one thousand students a year register for these courses."³⁴ Also twenty doctoral students completed their dissertations in 1960. Furthermore there have been a number of publications by both professors and graduate students.³⁵

The program of the Comparative Education Center at the University of Chicago has been based primarily on the social science approach. Writing about the program the Director of the Center stated:

One purpose in launching the Center was to bring additional social science personnel into the Department of Education. The Department has for many years included several faculty members whose original association lay in one or another social science discipline outside the professional field of education. This emphasis has remained a distinctive feature of the Center program. The Department is part of the social science division³⁶

Another purpose in establishing the Center arose from the need to relate professional education to the many overseas responsibilities of universities. The introduction of a cross-cultural dimension into the program was considered to

³⁴ Ibid., p. 16.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ C. Arnold Anderson, "The Program of the Comparative Education Center, University of Chicago," in Stewart Fraser (ed.), Governmental Policy and International Education, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965), p. 73.

be helpful in meeting this need. The Center, has in fact, been concerned with training mature men and women for leadership roles in governmental and private agencies interested in educational policy-making and participation in international service activities.

The Center has always had an inter-disciplinary orientation since its inauguration in 1958. The staff have represented the social science disciplines including Sociology, Economics, History of Education, and Anthropology, in addition to the basic preoccupation with professional education. Ties with other departments of the university have been established. The Center has taken the position that "Comparative Education is an approach to educational topics, not a discipline" and has contented itself with the viewpoint that "There is a fruitful and interesting cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary way of dealing with the more important aspects of education."³⁷ It has taught only graduate students since its inauguration and has offered the following courses: (1) comparative education, (2) sociology of education, (3) the economics of education, as well as seminars on area studies covering Latin America, U.S.S.R., and Africa.

Within the Department of Education, the Center has been part of the section called 'Education and the Social

³⁷ Ibid., p. 74.

Order' comprising Sociology, History, Philosophy of Education as well as Comparative Education. Doctoral candidates have had to equip themselves in all these areas in addition to taking examinations in subjects such as statistics and educational psychology. The research activities carried on at the Center have always reflected its interdisciplinary orientation and emphasis on the social science approach. Appearing in Appendix D of this study is the report on research activities at the Center during the 1967/68 academic year.

In Great Britain the organized study of comparative education began in the 1920's and increased in importance in the 1930's. The University of London has been interested in the development of comparative education since the 1920's and King's College as well as the Institute of Education have offered courses in the field. The chair in Comparative Education was formally instituted in the university in 1947 with Professor J.A. Lauwers as the first chairman. Under the direction of Lauwers and Nicholas Hans programs in comparative education studies were organized for masters and doctoral students as well as those studying for the Teacher's Diploma.

Nicholas Hans' Comparative Education³⁸ was in fact

³⁸ Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education: A Study of Educational Factors and Traditions, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1949), see the Preface.

based on the courses of lectures he gave to the diploma and masters students in King's College as well as the Institute of Education from 1945 to 1947. Under the strong influence of the Kandelian theory, the approach to comparative education in British universities during the 1930's and 1940's was largely the historical-philosophical as evidenced by Hans' textbook which was based on the analysis of antecedent factors shaping educational systems. A number of masters and doctoral dissertations were completed at the University of London. For instance, in 1936 S.P. Chatterji's doctoral dissertation dealt with a comparative study of the methods employed in England and France for the grouping of children and young persons in different types of schools, and in 1951 Yen Yuen-Chang's doctoral dissertation was on the historic, geographic, cultural, economic and political factors in the development of Chinese and English education.³⁹ Outside London other universities including Leeds, Reading, Birmingham and Oxford also offered courses in comparative education, as well as research facilities towards the masters degree. In Appendix F of this study there is a list of comparative education courses offered during the 1969/70 academic year by the Comparative Education Department of University of

³⁹ Vernon Mallinson, "Comparative Education, Studies in Great Britain," Comparative Education Review, (November 1952), p. 60.

London Institute of Education.

The publication of the Year Book of Education beginning in 1932 contributed to the development of comparative education in Britain as well as America. It gave serious students in Britain a regular avenue for publishing scholarly articles on various aspects of education in different countries. For instance Nicholas Hans contributed several articles in the 1933, 1934 and 1935 editions.

The University of London has established and maintained contacts with some of the world centres for comparative education. These have included (1) The Comparative Education Center at the University of Chicago, (2) The Research Institute of Comparative Education and Culture at Kyushu University in Japan, and (3) The Moscow Center in Comparative Education. Some staff members have visited these centres for teaching and research purposes and there have been reciprocal visits to London University from these centres.

The Research Institute of Comparative Education and Culture at the Faculty of Education, Kyushu University, Japan was established in 1955. The purpose of the Institute has been "comparative research in the education and culture of the world,"⁴⁰ including

⁴⁰ The Catalogue of Kyushu University 1967, (Fukuoka: Kyushu University, Japan, 1967), p. 38.

(a) social, economic, political and cultural backgrounds of various countries; and (b) philosophies, systems, contents, methods and problems of education of different countries at the present time as well as in the past.⁴¹

In 1967 the research programs of the Institute covered the following areas: Japan, East Asia, Southeast Asia, South Asia, Europe and North America. The Institute has been particularly interested in the educational problems of Asia. It has maintained close contact with other educational organizations both in Japan and in foreign countries including England and U.S.A.

The Moscow Center in Comparative Education has been a department of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the Russian Soviet Federal Socialist Republic (RSFSR). Before 1956 the Center was called Otdel po izucheniu zarubezhnogo opyta i informatsii (Department for the Study of Foreign Practice and Information). Its work was then "limited to references and information, and no aims of a research character were put before it."⁴² At the end of 1955, however, the organization was transformed into a research department forming a part of the Scientific Research Institute of Theory and History of Pedagogics (which itself has been a branch of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences). The reorganized unit was named Sector souvremennoy pedagogiki i

⁴¹ Ibid.

⁴² V.A. Veikshan, "The Moscow Center in Comparative Education," Comparative Education Review, (June 1959), p. 4.

shkoly za rubezhom (Department of Contemporary Education and School Abroad); it had as its main objective scientific research in the field of school organization and educational theory in foreign countries.

Research work carried out in 1956 was based on the theme "Educational systems in foreign countries". In 1957 the theme was "Syllabi and curricula of foreign schools" and in 1958 it was "School education abroad today."⁴³ In order to keep Russian teachers and educators well informed of educational developments abroad, the Center has published periodically a digest called Pedagogika i narodnoe obrazovanie v zarubezhnykh stranakh (Education Abroad).

In Canada comparative education has been offered as a course for graduate students at a number of universities. According to a study undertaken by Joseph Katz, the following institutions offered comparative education as a regular course for their graduate students in 1961: the Ontario College of Education, the University of Ottawa, McGill University, the University of Montreal, the University of Manitoba, the University of New Brunswick and the University of British Columbia. The University of Alberta offered the course only at intervals during summer sessions.⁴⁴ The courses offered in 1961 dealt mainly with the following

⁴³ Ibid., p. 5.

⁴⁴ Joseph Katz, "Comparative Education and External Aid Programs in Canada," Comparative Education Review, (June 1962), p. 12.

countries: England, France, Germany, U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. The textbooks used for the courses included Vernon Mallinson, An Introduction to the Study of Education, (Macmillan, 1957), A.H. Moehlman and J.S. Roucek, Comparative Education, (Dryden, 1952), Edmund King, Other Schools and Ours, (Rinehart, 1960), J.F. Cramer and G.S. Browne, Contemporary Education, (Harcourt, Brace, 1956), Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education, (Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1956), M. Sargent, Education and Society, (Phoenix, 1955) and I.L. Kandel, The New Era in Education, (Houghton Mifflin, 1955). All faculties offering comparative education courses subscribed to the Comparative Education Review as well as other periodicals bearing on education in foreign countries.⁴⁵ In 1961 four universities (Alberta, Ontario, Ottawa and British Columbia) reported that a total of thirteen master's and doctoral theses had been completed by their graduate students.⁴⁶

By 1968 comparative education had reached varying stages of curricular development in Canadian universities. Roger Magnuson made the following statement based on a study he conducted in 1968:

⁴⁵ Ibid.

⁴⁶ Ibid., p. 13. The theses are listed.

In some institutions comparative education is little more than a sub-topic in an educational foundations course; in others it is a course in its own right; and in still others it is a program leading to a diploma or degree.⁴⁷

Magnuson observed that fourteen institutions reported offering comparative education to their students. Of that number only four universities -- Alberta, British Columbia, Calgary and McGill -- were actively engaged in comparative education since they alone sponsored advanced degree programs leading to the M.A., M. Ed. or Ph. D. On the whole the comparative education programs in Canadian universities have been "modest undertakings as evidenced by their small enrolments, few courses and limited staff participation."⁴⁸ Appendix G of this study shows the offerings of comparative education courses and programs in selected Canadian English-language colleges and universities.

The activities of some international organizations which promoted the development of comparative education were examined in Chapter V. Of all the international organizations the roles of UNESCO and IBE need special emphasis. Some important centres in the world for the study of comparative education have been listed in Appendix B of this study.

⁴⁷ R. Magnuson, "A Survey of Comparative and International Education Resources and Facilities in Selected English-language Colleges and Universities in Canada," The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada: Papers: 1968, p. 49.

⁴⁸ Ibid.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

An attempt has been made in this study to show the various developmental stages through which comparative education has passed. As part of this exercise attention has also been focused on the various institutions which have contributed to the development of comparative education.

It was shown that the earliest stage of its development was characterized by simple, casual reports of travellers who were motivated by curiosity to record their observations for the benefit of others. The literature at this stage was reportorial and lacked interpretation. The examples of travellers' reports on foreign education drawn from ancient and medieval times as well as the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries testify to these characteristics. These simple descriptive reports of education in foreign countries may be looked upon as primitive comparative education observations which heralded the next stage in the development of the field.

The stage of 'hunting expeditions' was particularly well marked in the nineteenth century and to some extent in the twentieth century. The enthusiasm for educational reform which swept through America and Europe during the nineteenth century drove educators to tour countries with what were considered to be excellent models of educational

organization. The objective was to borrow whatever was good in other systems. Prussia and France were among the European countries most often visited. Educators recognized the potential value of schools for nation building and therefore generally copied the teaching methods, financial arrangements, teacher training methods as well as administrative techniques of the more advanced countries.

The literature produced at this stage was generally of the encyclopedic type; almost anything about foreign education catching the eye was recorded. This is well illustrated by Henry Barnard's report on European education contained in his Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1888-89. Sometimes irrelevant information was collected. Also the literature tended to be eulogistic and was generally devoid of interpretative analysis. The accounts were descriptive and mostly based on educational institutions and practices; very little attempt was made to relate these to the social and cultural contexts within which the educational systems operated. Moreover since the educators generally set out on their tours without any clearly defined plans of investigation, their accounts were generally unsystematic. Also some of the accounts were very biased.

With the third developmental stage a more systematic approach to comparative education began to emerge. A few of the nineteenth century comparative educators stood in a

class apart because they brought to their work a certain degree of orderliness, planning, and discipline. The work of Jullien was one of the best in this category since it was based on a carefully planned questionnaire for collecting information to be subsequently analyzed and classified. The other distinctive work in this category was probably that of Kay-Shuttleworth who set up a hypothesis and attempted to test it empirically in twenty-seven European states.

The stage of international concern in comparative education arose primarily from the desire to use education to promote world peace, understanding and betterment. The international motivation led to the formation of various national and international organizations to promote international education. Two of the leading international organizations in this respect have been UNESCO and IBE. Of the national governments interested in international education the U.S.A. may be singled out as providing probably the most noteworthy services. The numerous activities in the field of international education have resulted in the accumulation of a vast amount of data that have been useful to comparative education. The many publications of UNESCO, IBE and the United States Office of Education, among others, have all provided statistical and descriptive data. Despite the problems connected with their use, the statistics provided by these organizations have been increasingly used

in comparative education studies.

The stage of initial attempts at interpretation in comparative education began at the beginning of the twentieth century. The previous literature had generally lacked an analysis of the social context in which educational systems operated. Beginning about 1900, however, emphasis was placed on the social and cultural background in interpreting educational institutions and practices because it was considered that there was an essential inter-relationship between education and society. The protagonists of this approach were scholars who were steeped in the historical-philosophical foundations of education. Therefore the comparative education literature produced during the first four or five decades of this century was largely based on history, culture, national traditions, philosophy and the analysis of antecedent forces shaping educational systems. It was Kandel's work which gave the general direction to be followed by comparative educators during this period. The general position of comparative educators was that certain antecedent forces in national life had determined the present shape of educational systems. However little attempt was made to analyze the forces themselves. (The forces included the economic, social, political and cultural systems of a nation). It was during the latter part of the 1950's that scholars began providing a much more penetrating interpretation by using the perspectives and methods of the

social sciences to analyze the forces themselves. The stage of social science interpretation is therefore the most recent in the development of comparative education.

Teaching and research in this field have had a much longer history in the U.S.A. than in Europe. Its firm establishment as a field of study in universities has been due largely to the work done at Teachers College, Columbia University. Also the formation of comparative education societies in the U.S.A. and Europe has been very helpful in this respect. The two periodicals, Comparative Education Review published in the U.S.A. and Comparative Education published in Great Britain have provided an avenue for the publication of some of the research work done by scholars in the field.

The present day trend of social science interpretation may continue into the foreseeable future because scholars are becoming more and more interested in the social dimensions of education. For instance, political scientists are raising questions about the relationship between education and political behaviour and are urging more study of political socialization. The political independence recently achieved by many underdeveloped countries has stimulated scholars to examine the role that education plays in many political processes. Similarly economists are using their theories and methods to examine education, in such areas as its role as investment in people, its influence upon the occupational

structure and its effects on all aspects of resource allocation and income. Arnold Anderson has predicted that "most of the tools of the social scientists ... will become standard procedures in comparative education."¹

It must be emphasized that despite the increasing use of the scientific approach, comparative education is not yet a science. It is even doubted in some circles whether it can be successfully developed into a science. A.D.C. Peterson, chairman of the editorial board of Comparative Education, has observed that the problem of developing comparative education into a science arose from the fact that "the concepts and the variables involved in such an attempt are so manifold and so shifting that the attempt has proved extraordinarily difficult."² He has noted that

we have not yet developed, and may never be able to develop, techniques of analysis sufficiently sophisticated for rigorously abstract application to problems which contain so many social and philosophical variables.³

Another approach to comparative education today is the philosophical. This is, however, not a dominant trend but could be developed. The philosophical approach is probably best represented by Joseph Lauwers. In an article

¹The University of Chicago, Comparative Education Center, Report of Activities 1959-1960, p. 9.

²A.D.C. Peterson, "Editorial," Comparative Education, Vol. 1, No. 1, (October 1964), p. 2.

³Ibid.

entitled "The Philosophical Approach to Comparative Education" Lauwers has argued that it is possible to establish "national styles" in philosophy or "different styles of arguing", as for instance, British empiricism, French nationalism, German idealism and romanticism, and American pragmatism.⁴ He believed that the

... subtle interplay of history and geography, climate and occupation, society and custom, tradition and invention, language and thought lead to different styles of arguing, to a concern with different kinds of problems -- hence to a leaning towards one rather than another way of philosophizing.⁵

To illustrate his argument, Lauwers delineated five different approaches to the concept of 'General Education', namely: (1) liberal education in England which means essentially fostering the development of personal character; (2) culture générale in France, which involves the development of reasoning powers mainly through the study of mathematics and the highly structured languages, French and Latin; (3) allgemeineinbildung in Germany which aims at getting to the root of things as well as the development of burning patriotism; (4) general education in America which emphasizes the usefulness of education and, (5) polytechnicalization in Russia which makes manual labour

⁴ Joseph A. Lauwers, "The Philosophical Approach to Comparative Education," International Review of Education, V, No. 3, (1959), p. 287.

⁵ Ibid., p. 288.

the essential ingredient in education and relates the school curriculum to the state's production machinery.

Lauwers argued that the different conceptions and practices concerning general education presuppose a complex of philosophical arguments and that what the comparative educator should do was to examine the various outlooks to discover why they were accepted in their respective countries and not in others. He posed the question, "In what ways did historical circumstances, social structure, administrative habits and so on promote acceptance or rejection?" He was convinced that the pursuit of such enquiries within the field of education would be fruitful and lead to a "deeper insight into what is likely to happen in any given society," and consequently enable one to make predictions.⁶

The evidence adduced in this study indicates that comparative education as conceived today is a multi-faceted study. Historians, economists, anthropologists, political scientists, sociologists, philosophers and professional educators all have a hand in it. It is eclectic and at the same time interdisciplinary. Arising from this feature is the common criticism that comparative education is not a recognized discipline and that it might well be eliminated from university studies. For instance, it is argued that it has no particular disciplinary base and that "the only

⁶ Ibid., p. 292.

legitimate disciplinary studies of education derive from the well recognized fields of anthropology, sociology, economics, political science, history, philosophy and psychology."⁷

The present writer's position is that the important thing is not whether a particular field of study is labelled a discipline or not, or whether or not it has a disciplinary base. The important point appears to be whether a disciplinary approach is being used in its study. Israel Scheffler has argued that although education may not be regarded as a discipline for not being dependent on scientific principles or theories and laws, that did not mean that "education is cut off from all established disciplines, and must forever lack theoretical illumination."⁸ To Scheffler the crucial issue was

whether we can establish reliable principles to explain how and why children learn, schools develop, curricula change, ideals conflict, perceptions alter, societies differ, standards of taste and culture are formed.⁹

Scheffler doubted whether any of the social sciences had been

⁷ R. Freeman Butts, "Civilization as Historical Process: Meeting Ground for Comparative and International Education," Comparative Education, Vol. 3, No. 3, (June, 1967), p. 155.

⁸ Israel Scheffler, "Is Education a Discipline?" in Israel Scheffler (ed.), Philosophy and Education (Second Edition), (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1966), p. 76.

⁹ Ibid.

sufficiently developed to establish the required 'reliable principles'. He therefore advocated the advancement of "the state of social inquiry -- in particular, of all those studies which seem likely to yield explanatory principles relevant to the concerns of education."¹⁰ It can be said that comparative education is one of "those studies which seem likely to yield explanatory principles relevant to the concerns of education." Against the background of Scheffler's observations it may be argued that although not a recognized discipline, comparative education is a relevant field of study since it now uses a disciplinary approach and aims at yielding explanatory principles relevant to educational matters.

The same position was taken on this issue by Robert King Hall. In connection with comparative education studies at Teachers College, Columbia University, he observed that it was of little significance to argue that comparative education was not a defined discipline. In his opinion comparative education as studied at Teachers College was

a most useful area with specialization within the general field of education, serving many thousands of students and meeting many educational needs, and as such is quite worthy of our most diligent study.¹¹

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 77.

¹¹ Robert King Hall, "The Improvement of the Teaching of Comparative Education" in W.W. Brickman (ed.), The Teaching of Comparative Education, Proceedings of the Second Annual Conference on Comparative Education, School of Education, (New York: New York University, 1955), pp. 9-10.

Like Robert King Hall, the present writer holds the view that comparative education can be a profitable field of study.

We are now in a period when the scholars in many fields of study are anxious to make them recognized and respected disciplines. If comparative education scholars are to identify their field with this trend then they will need to solve the major problems now facing them. The following suggestions are offered toward this end.

First, it is suggested that scholars endeavour, as soon as practicable, to reach an agreement as to what comparative education means and what methods should be used in its study. The literature sometimes refers to comparative education as a field of study, sometimes as a subject of study and at other times as a method of inquiry. Not until scholars have reached a consensus as to the precise nature of comparative education and its methods of investigation can they be in a position to enhance its academic image.

Second, if comparative education is to justify its name, then it is suggested that studies done in the field must be truly comparative. The comparative element has been conspicuously absent from most of the studies done so far; moreover some of them have been primarily descriptive rather than analytical. Generally speaking, selected educational systems or problems have been examined, country by country,

and the reader left to make the comparisons himself. Cross-cultural comparisons are few. The first conference on comparative education held in London in 1951 stated clearly that "Comparative Education should use the method of comparison"¹² Scholars in the field must necessarily use the comparative approach in their studies.

The third suggestion refers to the scope of comparison and is connected with the comparative idea just discussed. Since the scope of comparative education is so vast, it is suggested that one limit oneself in the choice of subject matter for research. Hitherto scholars such as Kandel and King have examined the educational systems of several countries (five or more) in a single study.¹³ This is obviously a formidable task which, at best, could be superficially executed even by experts. It is suggested that comparative educators limit the scope of their investigations to a small geographical area and to one problem or topic treated comparatively. The comparison of say, teacher training in France and Canada could certainly be done much more thoroughly than the comparison of the educational systems of say France, Canada, the U.S.A., the

¹² Nicholas Hans, "English Pioneers of Comparative Education," British Journal of Educational Studies, Vol. I, No. 1, (November 1952), p. 56.

¹³ For instance, see I.L. Kandel, Comparative Education, (Cambridge, Mass.: The Riverside Press, 1933). Also Edmund J. King, Other Schools and Ours, Third edition, (New York: Rinehart & Co., 1967).

U.S.S.R., Great Britain and India in a single study.

The fourth suggestion is that an attempt should be made to establish more objective criteria by which international comparisons might be made. This is necessary if the subjectivity which tends to characterize some comparative education studies is to be reduced. When a scholar studies the educational system and problems of a second country, he may sometimes fail to recognize that the educational system in his own country should represent the field of reference, against which he makes the study. Instead of considering his country as such he may be ethnocentric and regard it as the ideal standard against which to judge education in the second country. This situation is academically undesirable. The establishment of objective criteria is necessary to ensure valid international comparisons.

The fifth suggestion relates to the standardization of educational terminology. So long as educational terms mean different things in different countries, it will be extremely difficult to make international comparisons. The publication of an international dictionary of educational terms appears to be long overdue. The glossary of educational terms published as an appendix to UNESCO's World Survey of Education (1955) needs to be expanded.

The sixth suggestion is that students may be encouraged to do comparative education research in languages

other than their own. The acquisition of thorough knowledge of foreign educational systems and problems often requires knowledge of foreign languages. A start could be made with the study of, say, two foreign languages, the students living in the foreign countries concerned in order to have the actual feel of the system and its problems.

Also, it is suggested that the teaching of the subject should be improved. This of course cannot be done without first solving the problem as to what comparative education is and how it should be studied. For if teachers are uncertain of the nature and scope of the subject or what methods should be used in its study, it is difficult to see how it can be effectively taught. Second, teachers have to be adequately prepared. They will need thorough grounding in one or two basic disciplines to give them the tools and perspectives for examining educational matters in different cultural contexts. Furthermore, as already indicated, their preparation should ideally include visits to foreign countries whose languages and social institutions should be thoroughly studied to facilitate research. Third, it is necessary to ensure that there is access to materials which make for good teaching. This refers particularly to primary materials or documents such as reports on planning and accurate statistics of economic development. Teachers and students should have sufficient linguistic competence

to consult such material. It is also suggested that specialists supplement each other's skills rather than isolate themselves from each other. Such co-operation could make for sharpening of their various perspectives toward comparative education.

Finally, it would be necessary to study more closely the relationship of comparative education with international education. Some future researchers in the field of comparative education will undoubtedly be concerned with the interwoven aspect of international education and its implications. For example, the incidence has mounted since the end of World War II of teacher and student exchanges, undergraduate "study abroad" programs, world college movements, Fulbright (U.S.A.) type programs, and teaching for international understanding. The relationship of such aspects of international education with comparative education has yet not been fully explored. It is not yet clear if comparative education will continue to include international education or if the latter will become sufficiently important as a specialized area of study.

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A P P E N D I X A

Letter to Bache Concerning His Educational
Tour of Europe

LETTER TO BACHE CONCERNING HIS EDUCATIONAL TOUR
OF EUROPE¹Board of Trustees of the
Girard College for Orphans,

September 19, 1836.

A. D. Bache, Esq.,
President of the Girard College for Orphans,
Philadelphia.

Dear Sir:

I enclose a copy of a resolution, passed by this Board on the 19th July last, authorizing you to visit Europe, under the instructions of the Committee on Scholastic Education. I also enclose, in quadruplicate, a commission from the Board, certified by the Mayor of Philadelphia, stating the objects of your mission, and asking the aid of all friends of science to facilitate your inquiries. The financial arrangements for your salary and expenses are, as you know, completed. It remains only for the Committee to add their instructions for your government.

Your familiarity with the subject of education, and your personal acquaintance with the views of the Board, of which you were a member, supersede the necessity of any detailed explanations in regard to the purposes of your voyage, or the best means of accomplishing them; and the Committee will, therefore, confine themselves to such general instructions as may regulate the course of your movements and inquiries.

The Board of Trustees are charged by the City of Philadelphia to prepare a system of instruction for the Girard College for Orphans. For this purpose they are anxious to have the most accurate information of the best means used for the same purpose elsewhere, and you have been selected to obtain it. Your object, then, is to visit all establishments in Europe similar to the Girard College; and as these are found principally, if not

¹Source: Alex Dallas Bache, Report on Education in Europe, (Philadelphia: Printed by Lydia R. Bailey, 1839), pp. iii-vii.

exclusively, in England, Scotland, Ireland, France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Prussia, and the rest of the states of Germany, these countries will form the natural limits of your tour. Accordingly, all institutions in each of those countries resembling the Girard College, or any others which promise to afford useful information in organizing it, you will see and examine. Your own reflection will readily suggest the points of information desired; and I will therefore, merely enumerate a few, which may serve as a basis for your own extensive investigation. Of every establishment visited by you, we should wish to know:

- (1) Its history, general administration, and the nature and extent of its funds.
- (2) Its interior organization and government; the names, titles, and duties of all the persons employed in it.
- (3) Who are admitted to it, and the forms and terms of admission, and where it is professedly for the education of orphans who are considered as orphans.
- (4) The number and classification of the scholars, and their terms of residence.
- (5) Their course of studies, in the minutest detail, from commencement to the end of their residence in the institution, with the textbooks and other works used.
- (6) As a part of that course, specially important to the Girard College, we should desire to know the regulations or the practice by which among a large body of scholars, a portion, after continuing for some time in the institution, are permitted to begin their active career in life -- while others, with greater aptitude or greater willingness to learn, are carried up to the higher branches of education. The nature and mode of that discrimination would be highly interesting -- as would also be --
- (7) The precise extent to which moral and religious instruction is proposed to be given, and is actually given, and also by whom and in what form that instruction is conveyed.
- (8) The mechanical arts taught -- the mode of teaching them -- the models, tools, and implements of all kinds employed -- and the manner in which the practice of these arts is mingled with the routine of studies.

(9) The system of rewards and punishments in regard to studies or personal conduct.

(10) The general policy and discipline of the school.

(11) The amusements -- gymnastic exercises -- games of all kinds, uniting instruction with agreeable relaxation -- together with the number and extent of the vacations, pecuniary allowance, or personal indulgences to the scholars.

(12) The diet and clothing of the scholars.

(13) The regulations in regard to health, hours of study and of rest, arrangement as to sleeping and eating, and the whole routine of each day's employment.

(14) The expenses of the school, including salaries and all incidents, with the average annual expense of each scholar.

(15) The structure of the buildings, the arrangement of dormitories, refectories, playgrounds, and workshops, illustrated by drawings, where they can be procured.

(16) As a proper foundation for similar statistical inquiries in this country, you will collect all the information you can in respect to the proportion of orphans to the rest of the community.

These general heads of inquiry, which you can easily multiply, will indicate the wish of the Board that your examination should be thorough and practical. They already possess, or may easily obtain, all that books can teach on the subject. It is your especial duty to study the actual working of the machinery of education; to domesticate yourself, if practicable, in these institutions, and, by your own personal observation, to distinguish what is really useful from what is merely plausible in theory.

It is this anxiety that your investigation should be complete, which induces them not to fix at present any period for your return. How much time it may require cannot now be safely determined. They rely confidently on your diligence, and are sure that you will not prolong your absence without ample reason. While, therefore, they are very anxious to open the College with the least possible delay, they deem it so much more important to begin well than to begin soon, that they postpone naming any limit to your stay in Europe, until you are able to apprise them of your progress.

In respect to the purchase of books and apparatus, mentioned in the resolution of the Board, it is not their wish that you should, at this time, purchase a library, or an extensive philosophical apparatus. You will only inquire where they can be best procured hereafter, and, in the meantime, limit your actual purchases to textbooks and other works used in the schools, or which may assist your inquiries: to models, drawings and such philosophical instruments as may be necessary or useful in opening the College, or which you may deem it expedient to procure in anticipation of the larger collection.

The materials and information thus acquired you will, on your return, present to the Board of Trustees, and at the same time, or as soon thereafter as practicable, you will prepare a final Report, with a plan for the government and instruction of the College -- the result of all your examination and reflection.

In the meantime, you will keep the Board constantly advised of your movements.

With my best wishes that your mission may be as pleasant as I am sure it will be useful, I remain,

Yours truly,

(signed)

N. Biddle
Chairman

A P P E N D I X B

Some International Organizations and Centres
for Comparative Education

SOME INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND CENTRES
FOR COMPARATIVE EDUCATION²

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²Source: Holmes, Brian and S. B. Robinson. Relevant Data in Comparative Education, (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1963), pp. 133-135.

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A P P E N D I X C

Some Definitions of Comparative Education

Arranged Chronologically,

1900 - 1969

SOME DEFINITIONS OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION ARRANGED
CHRONOLOGICALLY, 1900-1969

The changing conception of comparative education between 1900 and 1970 is evident in the following definitions arranged chronologically.

1900 --- An implicit definition of comparative education was given by Michael Sadler as follows:

... if we propose to study foreign systems of education, we must not keep our eyes on the brick and mortar institutions, nor on the teachers and pupils only, but we must also go outside into the streets and into the homes of the people, and try to find out what is the intangible, impalpable, spiritual force which, in the case of any successful system of education, is in reality upholding the school system and accounting for its practical efficiency.³

1930 --- Isaac Kandel made the following statement in his major work entitled Comparative Education:

A study of foreign school systems which neglects the search for the hidden meaning of things found in the schools would merely result in the acquisition of information about another educational system, and would be of little value as a contribution to the clarification of thought, to the better development of education as a science, and to the formulation of a comprehensive, all-embracing philosophy of education thoroughly rooted in the culture, ideals, and aspirations which each nation should seek to add to the store of human welfare.⁴

³Michael Sadler, How Far Can We Learn Anything of Practical Value from the Study of Foreign Systems of Education. Guildford (England): Printed by J. C. Colvill, 1900. Cited by G.Z.F. Bereday, "Sir Michael Sadler's Study of Foreign Systems of Education," Comparative Education Review, Vol.VII, (February, 1964), p. 309.

⁴Isaac L. Kandel, Comparative Education, (Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933), pp. xxv-xxvi.

1937 --- Isaac Kandel defined comparative education thus:

Comparative Education, the study of current educational theories and practices as influenced by different backgrounds, is but the prolongation of the history of education into the present.⁵

1955 --- Joseph Lauwery's definition was:

Comparative Education is a study of educational 'facts' with the purpose of understanding how educational structures and educational policies come to be as they are.⁶

1955 --- Friedrich Schneider stated at a Hamburg conference on comparative education that in his view scholars could best speak of

Comparative Education only when the educational theory and practice of two or more countries or sectors thereof are being investigated and described with the help of the comparative method.⁷

1957 --- Vernon Mallinson defined comparative education as:

... a systematic examination of other cultures and other systems of education deriving from these cultures in order to discover resemblances and differences, and why variant solutions have been attempted (and with what result) to problems that are often common to all.⁸

⁵ Cited by W.W. Brickman, "The Theoretical Foundations of Comparative Education," Journal of Educational Sociology, Vol. 30, 1956-57, pp. 116-117.

⁶ Comparative Education (An International Meeting held from 12-16 April, 1955, at the UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg), Hamburg, 1955, p. 11.

⁷ Ibid., p. 9.

⁸ Vernon Mallinson, An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education, (London: William Heineman Ltd., 1957), p. 10.

1959 --- The Dictionary of Education stated:

A field of study dealing with the comparison of current educational theory and practice in different countries, for the purpose of broadening and deepening understanding of educational problems beyond the boundaries of one's own country.⁹

1960 --- George Kneller gave the following definition:

... an attempt to study education in different countries in the light of the historical development of pertinent educational theories and practices and in consideration of the social, cultural and economic growth of those countries, so that by increasing one's understanding of such conditions and developments the general improvement of education may be stimulated everywhere.¹⁰

1968 --- Stewart Fraser stated:

Comparative education is ... the analysis of educational systems and problems in two or more national environments in terms of socio-political, economic, cultural, ideological and other contexts.¹¹

1969 --- Noah and Eckstein stated:

Comparative education in its most recent phase emerges as the attempt to use cross-national data to test propositions about the relationship between education and society and between teaching practices and learning outcomes.¹²

⁹ Carter V. Good (ed.), Dictionary of Education. Second edition, New York, Toronto, London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959, p. 114.

¹⁰ George F. Kneller, "Comparative Education," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Third edition, New York: Macmillan Co., 1960, p. 316.

¹¹ S.E. Fraser and W.W. Brickman (eds.), A History of International and Comparative Education, Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1968, p. 1.

¹² H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, Toward a Science of Comparative Education. Toronto, London: The Macmillan Co., 1969, p. 114.

1969 --- Also Noah and Eckstein stated:

The field of comparative education is best defined as an intersection of the social sciences, education, and cross-national study. Consequently, a problem in comparative education is the common concern of both social scientists and educators, but the exclusive concern of neither.¹³

¹³H.J. Noah and M.A. Eckstein, Ibid., p. 121.

A P P E N D I X D

Research Activities at the Comparative Education
Center, University of Chicago
(1967/68)

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES AT THE COMPARATIVE EDUCATION
CENTER, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO (1967/68)¹⁴

(1) Educational and Occupational Perceptions in Japan. This is the largest research activity in the Center at present. Aspirations and expectations are being analyzed for a large sample of Japanese secondary-school boys, and those perceptions in turn are related to the educational and occupational histories of their fathers as well as to the incomes and occupational perceptions of the fathers. The patterns and costs of training across the occupational structure as related to earnings form a background for the pupils' perceptions. This work is supported by the Carnegie Corporation and by the Office of Education.

(2) Non-Return of Foreign Students. This dissertation project of Robert Myers has been extended by additional analyses, and (supplemented by collation of similar studies), is being prepared for publication. It is linked with the distinct though related topic of "brain drain", on which several lines of work converge (see below). This study was supported by the Carnegie Corporation.

(3) International Study of Educational Achievement. The report of the first phase of this study (on mathematics) was published. Further phases are being planned with the aid of subvention from the Office of Education. The Center will have a modest part in this work, though it is mainly within the province of psychometricians. Two supplementary studies were made; one dealt with the question of fit between educational and economic systems, and the other explored the question as to whether national characteristics could be identified that would explain differences in school achievement. The further work on this large project will deal with additional school subjects and will include a few additional countries.

(4) Communication and the Human Ecology of Underdevelopment. This investigation is an outgrowth of earlier studies by Professor Bowman in underdeveloped Appalachia. Following Dudley Plunkett's examination of teachers as interstitial persons in that area, additional categories of leaders have been studied. In addition intensive analysis of the development potential of various economic sectors has been carried out. This work is supported by the Economic Development Administration.

¹⁴University of Chicago, Comparative Education Center,
Report for 1967/68.

(5) Special Studies of High-Level Manpower: Teachers.

The study of East Kentucky teachers in the broader context of development of that area has been mentioned. The twin dissertations on facts related to stability of teachers in different types of secondary schools in England and Germany have been delayed by employment of the students but are now near completion. Larry Litten has been studying the faculty of La Molina University in Lima with particular reference to the relative advantages of local and overseas study in supplying productive staff members for universities in developing countries. Thomas Tollman is exploring the factors that distinguish recruits to Peace Corps from other college students; most volunteers work as teachers. A project will be carried out -- the topic not yet clearly specified -- for the Kerr- Carnegie Commission on Higher Education.

(6) Human Capital and Economic Development. In some respects the large Japanese study falls under this rubric. So also does the study of La Molina University. Similarly the further work on the special problems of the University of East Africa (of which the first phase was done for A I D) is in this category. The much delayed analysis of education and employment in the Ivory Coast is now moving toward publication. Professor Foster has completed a major review of the literacy situation in Africa. Professor Bowman has completed additional papers on different aspects of "human capital". She and Professor Anderson prepared the thematic paper on education in the early stages of development for the forthcoming meeting of the International Economic History Association. It is anticipated that it will prove possible to conduct a replication of an earlier study of selection for secondary schools in Kenya. Professor Foster has published additional papers on this topic generally and with reference to Africa particularly. Some of the more theoretical aspects of Myers' work on migrant students pertains to his general topic of human capital.

(7) Educational Policy. In the present climate of affairs it is tortuous often to distinguish policy papers from others and indeed much of our work has policy implications. The studies of Appalachia for EDA clearly are of this character. In addition we are participating with others in the national comparative education group (and peers abroad) in a study of policy making in secondary education during the last twenty years. Sweden is the specific assignment to the Center in this project.

(8) Educational Planning. If one does not take conceptual distinctions too literally, there is inevitably much overlapping between this rubric and items listed under

other headings. Certainly, much of the research and writing done in the Center contributes to the analytical apparatus and empirical underpinning for planning of education, even when that application is of minor interest to the authors. Titles in the bibliography serve to identify most papers of that type.

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C. Arnold Anderson

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Philip J. Foster

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Hideo Ikeda (Tokushima University, collaborator on the Center studies in Japan)

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Robert G. Myers

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Yasumasa Tomoda (Lecturer at Hiroshima Junior Agricultural College and collaborator on the Centre studies in Japan)

"The Reporting of Father's Schooling and Occupation by Japanese Students and Their Fathers" (with Mary Jean Bowman)

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Publications by Students

Philip G. Altbach

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"The Geography of Youth Employment and School Enrollment Rates in Mexico," in Kazamias and Epstein, op. cit., 280-94.

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A P P E N D I X E

COMMISSIONER'S STATEMENT ON THE OBJECTIVES OF THE
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

COMMISSIONER'S STATEMENT ON THE OBJECTIVES OF THE
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

The legitimate function of the Bureau of Education is the collection and distribution of educational information. Each place should know the fruits of experience in all other places. A national bureau should not merely collect the statistics of education in the several States, but should also study the systems established by the various nations of Europe and Asia. Doubtless each nation has devised some kind of discipline, some course of study which will train the children of its schools into habits in harmony with its laws. An investigation of these features in view of the obvious demands of the governmental forms will furnish us with a science of comparative pedagogy.

My predecessors in this Bureau have therefore presented from year to year in their Annual Reports a digest of foreign educational information, and have supplemented these by special studies of noteworthy educational changes abroad.

The knowledge of other educational systems than our own is the most important of all species of practical knowledge, because it is a knowledge of methods, and this sort of knowledge alone it is that gives directive power. The explanation to ourselves of the differences that exist in our neighbor's system and a careful study of the special fruits which grow from it will enlighten us as to our own peculiarities, and we shall watch these with care lest they become exaggerated and have results not to be desired.¹⁵

¹⁵ Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1888-89, Volume I, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1891), p. xix.

A P P E N D I X F

Comparative Education Department in the
University of London Institute of
Education

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT IN THE UNIVERSITY
OF LONDON INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

History:

The Department of Comparative Education in the University of London Institute of Education came into existence with the appointment of Joseph A. Lauwers as a Professor of Comparative Education in 1947. An important contribution to its work was the participation of Nicholas Hans, then Reader in Comparative Education at King's College, London. He involved himself in lecturing and taking part in the seminars until shortly before his death in 1969.

Aims:

The aim of the Comparative Education Department is the promotion through all means available and in the best way possible of teaching and research in the fields of comparative and international education.

Structure and Organization:

The Department forms an integral part of the University of London Institute of Education from the administrative and financial points of view.

The Head of the Department is Professor Joseph A. Lauwers, D. Sc., D. Lit., F.R.I.C.

The other members of the Department are:

Brian Holmes, B. Sc., Ph. D.
Ann Dryland, B.A., M.A.,
Kartick C. Mukherjee, M.A., Ph. D.
Janusz J. Tomiak, B. Sc., M.A.
*

The Comparative Education Library forms an integral part of the Institute of Education Library. The library staff are:

Thelma Bristow, F.L.A.
Jan van Wateren, M.A.

*Also teaching Comparative Education is Edmund King, M.A., Ph. D., D. Lit., of King's College, London.

Courses:

(1) Graduate Certificate in Education (option Comparative Education) 19 lectures + 10 seminars

Content of lectures: Nature and history of Comparative Education
 Part I: The influence of spoken and written language on education
 Language policies
 Religion and education
 Social structure and education
 Racial factor in education
 Relationship between social class and education
 Education and social change
 Education and economic development
 Education and socio-economic progress
 Educational problems in modern industrial society
 The educational system of the U.S.A.
 The nature and spirit of American education
 The educational system of France
 The educational systems of Germany
 Communist policy in education
 Education in the U.S.S.R.
 Trends of change in Western Europe
 International organizations in education

The seminars follow the content of lectures.

(2) Academic Diploma in Education (option Comparative Education)

(a) general study:

28 lectures + 28 seminars for part-time students and 24 seminars for full-time students

Contents of lectures:

The Aims of Comparative Education
 The contents of comparative education
 The methods of comparative education

The chief influences upon the theory and practice of education:

- geography, demography, economic resources
- cultural and social factors
- ideological and philosophical influences
- economic influences

The outcomes of educational policies

The organizations for comparative and international studies

The part-time students' seminars follow the contents of lectures.

The full-time students' seminars:

Autumn term: Religious traditions and education

Introduction

Hinduism and education

Buddhism and education

Judaism and education

Islam and education

Roman Catholicism and education

Protestantism and education

Secular humanism and education

Religious beliefs and educational development

Religious traditions and comparative studies in education

Spring term: National systems of education in the world

Introduction

Education in North America: Canada

Education in Latin America: Brazil

Education in West Africa: Ghana

Education in East Africa: Tanzania

Education in the Near East: Iran

Education in the Far East: Japan

Education in Australia

Education in New Zealand

Education in Eastern Europe: Poland

Summer term: Political ideologies and education

The radical tradition and education

The conservative tradition and education

The liberal traditions and education

Politics and education

(b) Area study:

24 lectures + 24 seminars in four groups:

- I - Education in France
- II - Education in India
- III - Education in the U.S.A.
- IV - Education in the U.S.S.R.

Content of lectures: Historical background

Principles

Legal basis

Administration:

- central government
- regional level
- local government
- internal school administration

School attendance

School organization and school types:

- stages of education
- types of education

Examination and selection

Teachers and teacher education

Higher education

Private education

The seminars follow the contents of lectures.

(3) M.A. in Education (option Comparative Education):

30 seminars for part-time students/ 30 seminars for full-time students

Autumn term: Methodology

Historical Approach: Hans, Ulich

Sociological Approach: Anderson, Kazamias

Problem Approach: Lauwers, Holmes

Statistical Approach: Idenburg

Ecological Approach: King

National Character Approach: Mallinson

Psychological Approach: Hussen

Economic Approach: Edding

Analysis by Stages Approach: Bereday

Scientific Approach: Noah, Eckstein

Spring term: Theories of Social Change

Marx: Class conflict

Ogburn: Social lag

Mannheim: Democratic Planning

Pareto: Formation of elites
 Myrdal: Economic growth
 Analysis of social and economic change:
 Urbanization and education
 Industrialization and education
 Technological growth and education
 Migration and education
 Developing countries and education

Summer term: Depth study of a country (USA/USSR/France/India)

Structure of secondary education
 Curriculum trends in the XXth century
 Principles of control and finance of education
 Higher education
 Teacher training
 Student unrest
 National/International Reports
 Bowles: Access to higher education
 Robbins: Higher education
 Hayden: Higher education and development in
 South-East Asia

(4) Ph. D. Seminars

Fortnightly meetings to discuss the individual
 Ph. D. theses

Comparative Education Study Tours:

A number of comparative education study tours to different countries are organized each year during the Easter holidays. In the recent years the following tours took place:

1967: Denmark, France, Italy, USSR
 1968: Denmark, France, Italy, USSR
 1969: Holland, France, Italy, USSR
 1970: France, Italy, USSR

The numbers of participants generally vary between 25 and 60 persons, for each tour. The tours include visits to all kinds of educational institutions, centres of administration and research as well as cultural visits. The cost varies, depending upon the country visited, between £ 45 and £ 125 per person.

Publications:

Comparative education study tours reports are published every year for each journey; they are sent to all participants as well as to a number of selected centres outside.

Members of the Department cooperate in preparation of The World Year Book of Education published annually by Evans Brothers Limited in association with the University of London Institute of Education and Teachers' College Columbia University, New York under the joint editorship of Joseph A. Lauwers, D. Sc., D. Lit., F.R.I.C. and David G. Scanlon, Ed. D.

The recent volumes were devoted to:

- 1950 Occupational Selection
- 1951 Morals
- 1952 Reform of Education
- 1953 Teachers
- 1954 Technological Development
- 1955 Guidance and Counselling
- 1956 Economics
- 1957 Education and Philosophy
- 1958 The Secondary School Curriculum
- 1959 Higher Education
- 1960 Communication Media and the School
- 1961 Concepts of Excellence in Education
- 1962 The Gifted Child
- 1963 The Education and Training of Teachers
- 1964 Education and International Life
- 1965 The Education Explosion
- 1966 Church and State in Education
- 1967 Educational Planning
- 1968 Education within Industry
- 1969 Examinations
- 1970 Education in the Big Cities

Compiled and presented by
Janusz J. Tomiak, B. Sc., M.A.,
Lecturer in Comparative
Education,
University of London Institute
of Education.

March 17, 1970

A P P E N D I X G

Comparative Education Courses and Programs
in Selected Canadian English-
Language Colleges and
Universities

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION COURSES AND PROGRAMS IN SELECTED CANADIAN ENGLISH-LANGUAGE
COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES¹⁶

Institution	Depart. or Chair, Etc. in C.E.	Level at Which C.E. Course(s) Offered	Under- Graduate	Remarks
Acadia University	-	yes	-	one credit course towards a B.A. and/or B. Ed.
Bishop's University	-	-	-	periodically a graduate course is offered during the summer session
Dalhousie University	-	-	-	yes
McGill University	yes	yes	yes	one M.A. level course; five instructors share teaching duties
Memorial University of Newfoundland	-	-	-	C.E. program leading to M.A.; two graduate and one undergraduate course in C.E. given; four instructors share teaching
Mount Allison University	-	-	-	graduate level course in Comparative Educational Administration is given
Mount Saint Vincent University	-	-	-	subject matter touched on in the history of education course

¹⁶The Comparative and International Education Society of Canada, Papers: 1968, pp. 53-56.

Instiution	Depart. or Chair, Etc. in C.E.	Level at Which C.E. Course(s) Offered	Remarks
		Under- graduate	Graduate
Notre Dame University of Nelson	-	-	subject matter treated in educational foundation courses
Nova Scotia Teachers College	-	-	subject matter treated in educational foundation courses
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education	-	-	? See U. of Toronto
Prince of Wales College	-	yes	one fourth-year B. Ed. elective course
Queen's University	-	-	McArthur College of Education not yet operational
St. Dunstan's Univer- sity	-	-	
St. Francis Xavier University	-	-	
St. Joseph's Teachers' College	-	yes	one elective half-course for fourth-year B. Ed. students
Saint Mary's University	-	-	two M.A. level courses are offered
Simon Fraser University	-	yes	courses offered towards B.A., B. Sc., and B. Ed. degrees; extensive work in C.E. being conducted by other academic departments in the university
Sir George Williams University	-	-	
Teachers' College, Fredericton, N.B.	-	-	

Inststitution	Depart. or Chair, Etc. in C.E.	Level at which C.E. Course(s) Offered	Remarks
	Under- graduate	Graduate	
University of Alberta	yes	yes	C.E. program leading to graduate diploma or M.Ed. or Ph.D; four instructors share in teaching
University of British Columbia	yes	?	C.E. program leading to M.S. or M. Ed.
University of Calgary	-	yes	C.E. program leading to M. Ed. undergraduate elective course offered to fourth-year B. Ed. students
University of Lethbridge	-	-	-
The University of Manitoba	-	-	a C.E. course has been given in the past on an irregular basis
University of New Brunswick	-	yes	C.E. optional course for B. Ed. students; special C.E. courses offered during summer session
University of Saskatchewan	-	yes	one course offered (no details available)
University of Saskatchewan, Regina Campus	-	-	undergraduate C.E. course listed but not given since 1966
University of Toronto (OCE)	-	-	one staff member gives a regular C.E. course at OISE
University of Victoria	-	-	-
University of Western Ontario	-	-	yes one elective course for students in one-year post B.A. program

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